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ABSTRACT

This compendium contains lectures on programs, administration, and services and on teaching and learning in adult and community education. The following lectures are included: "Working Effectively with Adults: What Research and Practice Tell Us," by Mark Rossman; "Learning How to Learn," by Robert Smith; "Assessing Teaching Style in Adult Education: How and Why," by Gary Conti; "Self-guided Learning and Change," by Allen Tough; "Non-traditional Adult Learning," by R. Andrew Johnson; "Development and Status of the American Community/Junior College," by S. Gregory Bowes; "Adult Education in Business and Industry," by Richard L. Knowdell; "The Reentry Woman in Higher Education," by Dolores Hentschel; "Needs Assessment Strategies and Techniques," by Malcolm Knowles; "Counseling and the Adult Learner," by Violet Malone; "Marketing and Promotion Strategies and Techniques," by Stanley Grabowski; and "Professional Burnout," by Mary Doris Woltkamp Rounds. (MN)

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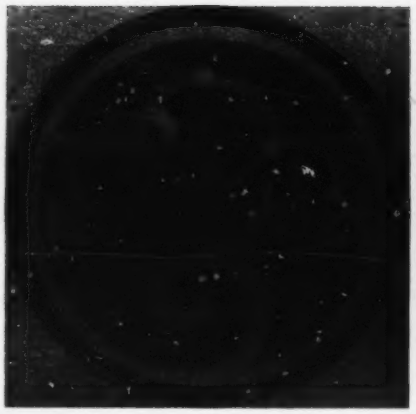

Adult and Community Education in the 80's

S. GREGORY BOWES, *Editor*

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ADULT AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION
IN THE 1980's

A Compendium of Lectures from
Series in Adult Education
at the University of New Mexico (1979-1984)

S. Gregory Bowes, Editor

Department of Educational Administration
College of Education
University of New Mexico

August 1985

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Introduction and Acknowledgments

In the late 1970's and early 1980's the College of Education at the University of New Mexico initiated and developed a graduate program of study in Adult and Community Education (ACE). As an expansion of regular coursework, the program benefitted from lectures and speeches from outstanding leaders in the ACE who came to UNM's campus to share their expertise and experience with graduate students, faculty and practitioners. These activities were organized as lecture-seminar series, state conferences and faculty-student retreats.

Our graduate program wishes to recognize outstanding moral and financial support from external agencies for these important activities. Primary co-sponsors of these major events were the New Mexico State Department of Education - Division of Vocational, Technical and Adult Education and the New Mexico Board of Educational Finance Commission of Postsecondary Education. Additional University support was provided by personnel in the offices of the Administrative Vice-President, Division of Continuing Education and Community Services and the Department of Secondary and Adult Education. Special recognition is extended to Wilma Ludwig, Phil Felix, Tom Wilson, Swede Johnson, Rupert Trujillo and Roderic Wagoner for their assistance in the total programming efforts.

This compendium is a compilation of the most noteworthy speeches and presentations delivered prior to 1985. The document is divided into two sections: (1) Teaching and Learning in ACE, and (2) Programs, Administration and Services in ACE. This document has been published for circulation to and use by members of the new College of Education ACE Committee, State Department of Education personnel, graduate students and adult education practitioners working on statewide Adult Basic Education and Career Information System projects. There is an excellent blending of theory and practice in the twelve subsections of the compendium. It is hoped that the information contained herein will stimulate professional deliberation, reflection and subsequent program implementation in Adult and Community Education in New Mexico.

Our deepest thanks and gratitude are also extended to the following University staff and service divisions they represent for photographs, processing, layouts, art work, and editorial talents that enhanced the beauty of this book's format, and most importantly, this book's purpose--to further lifelong learning: Jan J. Carley, Graphic Designer, Learning Materials Laboratory; Michael Gibson, Photo Supervisor, Instructional Media Services/Photo; Susanna Gilbert, Staff Member, Adult Basic Education Project; Michael W. Mouchette, Photographer, Public Affairs Office; and Lyn Taylor, Research Assistant, Adult Basic Education Project.

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"Working Effectively with Adults: What Research and Practice Tell Us"

by

Dr. Mark Rossman

A number of years ago, I discovered, in The Works of John Dewey, a wonderful plan for presenting information to adults--Preview, Do and Review. I have found that this is a very effective plan to use as it puts into practice much of the theory of adult learning. With that in mind, I would like to share with you my understanding of what the research says about adult learning and its application. Particularly, I will confine my remarks to physiological changes in the adult learner, mental abilities of the adult learner, psychological factors affecting adult learning and the adult orientation to learning. The physiological condition of the learner exerts a significant influence on learning that is often poorly understood and ignored by both the adult learner and the adult educator. Nearly every adult experiences some kind of physical disability that may be the source of some learning difficulty. This may result from an inherited characteristic, from injury or disease, from inadequate nutrition, or from the natural process of aging. From whatever source it may arise, the physiological condition of the learner will affect learning and performance in a number of ways that need to be examined (Verner and Davison, 1971:1). The following physiological areas will be discussed in this section: vision, audition, and reaction time.

Adults with normal physiological characteristics depend more upon vision in learning than upon any other of the senses. It is estimated that some 85 percent of all learning occurs through vision. Although the life span of the eye exceeds life expectancy, there is a steady decrease in the average efficiency of visual functions with advancing age, even in otherwise healthy eyes. As a result, the percentage of the population with defective vision shows a sharp increase from 23 percent at age twenty to 95 percent at seventy years of age (See figure 1) (Verner and Davison, 1971:6).

The primary measurement that reflects the efficacy of vision is the measurement of visual acuity (Geist, 1968; Birren, 1964). Studies have indicated that visual acuity attains its maximum at about eighteen to twenty years of age (Florida Department of Education, 1973; Knox, 1977:280). The near-point of vision begins to move away from the eye after ten years of age, and the most striking change occurs between forty-five and fifty-five years of age (Verner and Davison, 1971:7).

The decrease in vision after, or at least beginning at, age forty appears to reflect changes in at least four different factors: pupil diameter, decreased ability to adapt to the dark, increased sensitivity to glare, and yellowing of the lens (Bischof, 1976: 104-5). The pupil diameter of the eye tends to diminish with age, thus reducing the amount of light reaching the retina. Perhaps the most sensitive indicator of the efficiency of the visual system is shown by the minimum light threshold of the fully dark-adapted eye (Birren, 1964; Troll, 1975). Dark adaptation is the phenomenon wherein there is an increase in visual sensitivity after remaining in the dark. It has been repeatedly demonstrated that the dark-adaptation threshold increases with age (Birren and Shock, 1950; McFarland and Fisher, 1955; Domey, McFarland, and Chadwick, 1960; Botwinick, 1973:122). It is possible to compensate for the changes in pupil size by

increasing the amount of external illumination. For a normal learning task an adult at age twenty requires 100 watts of illumination, but by age fifty 180 watts are required for the same task to compensate for pupillary changes (See figure 2) (Verner and Davison, 1971:9). In a study by Guth et al. (1956) on the lighting requirements of older workers, each subject whose eyes were corrected for refractive errors attempted to read 10 seven-letter words under different conditions of illumination. Results indicated that as one ages greater illumination is needed to obtain equal visual recognition. Another important aspect of illumination is the matter of contrast. The learning task or stimulus must be set apart from its background so that it stands out as separate and distinct from its surroundings. Contrast has a pronounced effect upon the speed of reading, and reading is reduced significantly when the words being read are not in sharp contrast with the paper on which they appear (Verner and Davison, 1971). Weiss (1959) indicated that there is evidence showing that contrast sensitivity declines with age. Also, loss in the accommodation function of the eye (ability to see clearly objects both far and near) begins at about age six and constantly decreases until about age sixty, after which it levels off until extreme old age (Bischof, 1976:105). This occurs due to loss of elasticity of the lenses of the eye, causing the older lens to have a more fixed focus, with reduced ability to adjust to objects close to the eye (Botwinick, 1973:121; Birren, 1964:89). The fourth factor which relates to the change in vision is the yellowing of the lens. There are some definite changes with age insofar as color vision is concerned (Geist, 1968: Dickinson, 1973; Botwinick, 1973). After age thirty-five, more blue light is needed to get a sensation of blue. This loss of yellow-blue discrimination diminishes as one moves toward the red end of the spectrum. Thus, after age thirty-five, learning tasks involving color will need to use strong rather than subtle tints (Gilbert, 1957; Birren, 1959).

Having briefly discussed the characteristics of vision and some possible implications, let us now direct our attention to the area of hearing and how it affects adult learning. In no capacity except sight are there greater changes at different stages in life than in hearing acuity. In most people the peak of performance seems to be reached before the fifteenth birthday, and there is gradual but consistent decline until about sixty-five (Kidd, 1973; Florida Department of Education, 1973; Kimmel, 1974; Knox, 1977). In addition to the loss of hearing efficiency as age progresses, there is also a slowing of the central auditory processes. We slow up on our response to auditory stimuli as we age, and for this reason many aged individuals find it difficult to follow rapid speech in spite of little or no hearing loss (Hand, 1973). The prevalence of impaired hearing is quite marked at the upper age levels. Beasley showed that the average hearing loss showed a marked increase past the age of forty-five and continued to increase rapidly thereafter (Geist, 1968:68; Birren, 1964).

The hearing loss in old age is not equal across all frequencies of sound. High-pitch tones are progressively less audible for the elderly (Kryter, 1960; Spoor, 1967). It appears that most individuals above the age of forty will show some loss of high-tone perception. Also there is a somewhat greater tendency for men to show impaired hearing than for women (Birren, 1964; Geist, 1968; Botwinick, 1973).

The normal process of aging produces hearing loss due to physiological changes in the ear that result in reduced ability to discriminate among sounds, causing impairment in speech discrimination (Melrose, Welsh, and Luterman, 1963; Verner and Davison, 1971:13). Konig (1957) found that between ages twenty-five and fifty-five discrimination decreased slightly, but after fifty-five the decrease was marked. To compensate for normal hearing loss in an adult learning situation, it is important for the instructor to speak slowly and distinctly and with sufficient volume. Since loss of hearing reduces the ability to recall long sentences, an instructor should use short

sentences--especially when giving directions for learning (Verner and Davison, 1971:13). This is especially important when dealing with individuals suffering a hearing loss, as the inability to hear can produce emotional disturbances such as fear, insecurity, and the inability to learn new concepts (Florida Department of Education, 1973:6).

In addition to the reduction of sensual acuity, studies indicate that one effect of aging (in the absence of disease) is a slowing of reaction time, regardless of the sensory modality and regardless of the muscle used for the response (Kimmel, 1973:367). Beginning as early as 1884, with the data collected by Galton, reaction speed was found to increase from early childhood to the twenties and thirties and to have a fairly significant decline beyond the forties. The decline in the reaction speed after age thirty was confirmed by the research of Miles, Bellis, and others (Lorge, 1963:2). Birren (1964) indicates that relative to other skills rapid reaction time appears to mature early. The figures suggest that reaction time reaches its minimum around age eighteen. Botwinick and Kornetsky (1960) compared the skin responses of older and younger adults to an electric shock and to a pleasant musical tone. The skins of the older group responded to the shock less quickly than the skins of the younger group and also responded less quickly to the tone. The generalized slowness of behavior in older persons is looked upon as being most probably an expression of a primary process of aging in the nervous system (Birren, 1964; Kimmel, 1973).

At the same time that performance is being altered by physiological changes, it is also being affected by the emotional response of an adult to physiological change. Thus, physical changes often are accentuated by the emotional state they induce. As an adult becomes less confident of his own ability, he may take longer to perform familiar tasks that his physiological state alone would require. Some adults might respond to a decrease in the ability to perform efficiently by increased motivation and determination to compensate for the loss, while others may become depressed and discouraged to the point that their performance falls far below the potential of their actual physical state (Verner and Davison, 1971:21).

Try as we may, we cannot circumvent the physiological aging process. I'm sorry to report that there is no "fountain of youth." We will age no matter how we try to avoid it. Before we begin feeling absolutely useless and decrepit, let us take a look at the relationship of mental abilities, and its role on adult learning.

The literature on abilities and aging contains four major areas bearing on the adult years: first, decline vs. growth in intellectual functioning with increasing age; second, speed vs. power as a measure of intellectual ability; third, the changing patterns of mental abilities with increasing age; and fourth, the relationship between education and intellectual ability.

According to Birren (1973:151-52), the problem of the criteria of adult intelligence has been notably neglected. Most intelligence tests and measures of intellectual ability in adults have been adapted from measures used with children or young adults. Implicit in the use of intelligence tests based on those of children is the notion that intelligence is related to school achievement. This is not a satisfactory situation, and a number of criteria might be posed against which to test the validity of our concepts and measurements of adult intelligence. Measures of intellectual function might be related to: 1) longevity; 2) occupation; 3) susceptibility to certain diseases; e.g., cardiovascular disease; 4) anatomic localization of behavior deficits associated with brain damage in later life; and 5) correlation with personality. It is also important to explore sex differences in relation to development and aging of the intellect. And adult performance on intelligence tests calls for certain attributes, such as being motivated, persisting in the task, cooperating with the psychometrist, and certainly having some comfortable familiarity with the test items (Bischof, 1969:214).

The greatest impact of age is felt by adults in the middle years of the thirties and forties, for it is at this time that the cumulative effects of aging begin to become obvious. Consciousness of age alters an adult's expectations of himself and his future so that involvement in learning is usually modified. This may be noticeable particularly with respect to motivation and to his measures of achievement (Verner and Davison, 1971:2).

One of the most significant problems in assessing an adult's intellectual ability is the degree to which information has been obtained from cross sectional rather than longitudinal studies. In cross sectional studies, people who differ in age also differ in generation. This means that any measured differences in intelligence quotient could reflect either age or generation differences, or both (Troll, 1975; Botwinick, 1973; Arenberg, 1973). Baltes and Schaie (1974) believe the reasons for generational differences in intelligence lie in the substance, method, and length of education received by different generations.

The decline in intellectual functioning with increasing age intimated by cross sectional data (Jones and Conrad, 1933; Miles, 1955; Wechsler, 1955) has not been supported by longitudinal studies which indicate continued growth into middle age. For example, Owens (1953) published a report of a longitudinal study of age changes in mental abilities. The subjects were 127 male freshmen of 1919 who had originally taken Army Alpha, Form 6, as an entrance examination at Iowa State University. They were retested during 1949-1950 with the identical examination. Results obtained indicated a substantial and significant increment in test scores over the years.

In 1961, Owens (1966) retested 96 subjects first tested in 1919 and again in 1950 with the Army Alpha, at an average age of sixty-one. The 96 subjects represented a 75 percent sample of the 127 first retested during 1950. Results obtained indicated that the decade from age fifty through age sixty was one of relative constancy in mental ability test performances for the subjects. Contrary to expectation, aging did not seem to have increased either individual or trait differences among the testees of 1961. Clearly, however, major components of the pattern of living of these subjects have served as moderators of the relationship between age and mental ability.

Bayley and Oden (1955) conducted a study in which a test designed to measure superior intelligence was administered twice, about twelve years apart, to 1,103 adults. Of these, 768 were selected as children by Terman for inclusion in the Stanford Study of Gifted Children. The other 335 were spouses of subjects in the Terman study. There was a highly significant increase in scores at the second testing both by the subjects of the gifted study and by the husbands and wives. The retest of this large group of superior adults gave strong evidence that intelligence of the type tested by the concept mastery scale continues at least through fifty years of age.

In 1956, Warner Schaie launched a major project to resolve the discrepancy between cross sectional and longitudinal studies. Five hundred subjects, ranging in age from twenty-one to seventy, received two intelligence tests: Thurstone and Thurstone's Primary Mental Abilities, and Schaie's Test of Behavioral Rigidity. Seven years later, Schaie and Baltes retested 301 of the subjects with the same tests. The tests they used yielded thirteen separate measures of cognitive functioning. Using factor-analysis methods, they found that the scores reflected four general, fairly independent dimensions of intelligence: 1) crystallized intelligence, 2) cognitive flexibility, 3) visuomotor flexibility, and 4) visualization. When the data were analyzed cross sectionally, the conventional pattern of early, systematic decline was evident, but when the data were analyzed longitudinally, there was a definite decline on only one of the four measures--visuomotor flexibility.

There is no strong age-related change in cognitive flexibility. For the most important dimension, crystallized intelligence, and for visualization as well, there is a systematic increase in scores for the various age groups, right into old age. Even people over seventy improved from the first testing to the second.

Klaus and Ruth Riegel, psychologists at the University of Michigan, have recently suggested that when intellectual decline does occur it comes shortly before death. In 1956, Riegels gave intelligence tests to 380 German men and women between the ages of fifty-five and seventy-five. Five years later they retested 202 of them. Some of the remaining had died, and others refused to be retested. When the Riegels looked back at the 1956 test scores of the subjects who had died, they discovered, on the average, that the deceased subjects had scored lower than those who survived.

The Riegels followed up their study in 1966 by inquiring into the fate of the people retested in 1961. Again, some people had died in the interim, and those who had died had had lower scores than those who had lived. Furthermore, people who had died since 1961 had declined in scores from the first test session in 1956 to the second in 1961. These results pointed to a sudden deterioration during the five or fewer years immediately prior to natural death, or what the Riegels called a "terminal drop."

The Riegels' results may offer an alternative explanation for the general decline found by cross sectional studies: the older groups may contain a higher percentage of people in the terminal drop stage, and their lower scores would not be typical of the older people (Baltes and Schaie, 1974).

Thorndike et al. (1928) conducted comprehensive studies of adult learning to report the facts concerning changes in the amount and changes in the nature of the ability to learn from about age fifteen to about age forty-five, and especially from age twenty-five to age forty-five. They carried on three extensive series of experiments, each including two hundred or more learners and covering long periods of learning. The first concerned learning to read, write, and compute, covering a range of intellect from near the average to very low levels. The second concerned learning of typical high school subjects such as algebra, English, civics, and biology, covering a range of from near average to very high levels. The third concerned learning typewriting and stenography, covering a range of intellect from near the average to very high levels. Intensive experiments in learning to write with the wrong hand, to typewrite, and to understand the artificial language Esperanto were also conducted.

The results of these experiments are as follows: 1) on the average, at the present time, individuals probably learn much less per year from age twenty-five to forty-five than they did from age five to twenty-five; 2) the decline from the acme of ability to learn (located probably between ages twenty and twenty-five) to about forty-two is only about 13 to 15 percent for a representative group of abilities; 3) the influence of the intellect upon the curve of ability to learn in relation to age is slight.

Based on their data, Thorndike et al. made the following points: 1) in general, nobody under forty-five should restrain himself from trying to learn anything because of a belief or fear that he is too old to be able to learn; 2) age, in itself, is a minor factor in either success or failure. Capacity, interest, energy, and time are the essentials. Thus, in their use of the concept of amount per hour, Thorndike et al. clearly distinguish between learning rate as efficiency or as performance and learning ability as power or potential.

A second major area related to abilities and aging is speed vs. power. Lorge (1963) indicates that a problem stemming from the Thorndike curve is that it is based upon tests that stress and emphasize speed of response. If decrements in speed, in seeing, and in hearing do characterize aging, then the evaluation of learning ability and of intelligence must consider the abilities as abilities and not in terms of losses in performance.

In order to determine the relationship between age and various tests of mental ability Lorge (1936) administered tests to a group of 143 adults ranging in age from twenty through seventy. He gave five intelligence tests, all timed, and the Institute of Educational Research Intelligence Scale CAVD, a test of intellectual power with no time limitations. On the timed tests the scores declined as the age of the group advanced. The average scores of the two older groups were, respectively, 15 to 25 percent below those of the youngest. On the CAVD, the scores were almost identical, with less than 0.1 percent difference between the group twenty to twenty-five years old and the two older groups, which were equal. In the conclusion to this study, Lorge maintained that contaminating power with speed measurements among older subjects obscures the true relationship of intellectual power to age; the inference of mental decline is an unfortunate libel upon adults.

Work by Canestrari (1963), Arenberg (1965), and Eisdorfer (1964) supports the hypothesis that the aged show decreased deficit in learning ability when such noncognitive factors as speed and anxiety are reduced or eliminated. Their subjects did not learn as well as younger age groups, but the quality of their performance increased significantly (Jarvik, Eisdorfer, and Blum, 1973:61).

The third major area which has bearing on adult years is the pattern of mental abilities. As better intelligence tests became available, researchers began to realize that different intellectual measures might show different rates of decline (Birren, 1964; Arenberg, 1973; Jarvik, Eisdorfer, and Blum, 1973; Botwinick, 1973). Eichorn (1973) reporting on subtest results from the Wechsler-Bellevue and the WAIS administered to members in the Berkeley Growth Study, found that the subtests which "hold up" are "Vocabulary" and "Information." Both subtests showed gains in both sexes through age thirty-six. Other studies (Bilash and Zubek, 1960; Owens, 1966; Foulds and Raven, 1948) reported that scores in perceptual and dexterity tests declined from the teens to the seventies, whereas other test scores--i.e., verbal fluency and comprehension--held up until the mid-forties. Honzik and Macfarlane (1973) reported that decline in speed on motor tasks begins between the ages of eighteen and forty, at a time when verbal scores are still increasing.

Since verbal abilities do not appear to decline with advancing age, one might expect little decline in the ability to receive verbal information. Rossiter (1970) conducted an interesting study to determine the relationship of listening ability and chronological age. The subjects in the study were thirty female upper-level undergraduate and graduate students at Ohio University during 1968. The ages ranged from twenty to sixty years. The significant negative linear relationship found between age and listening scores indicated that listening ability does decline with increased aging. I suggest, therefore, that those teaching classes in which adult students may vary widely in age might be aware that older students may be retaining less from oral presentations or information than younger students.

Sharon (1971) suggests that the relative amount of knowledge in different academic subjects changes as a function of age. There is a progressive improvement in achievement in humanities, social science, and history, and a general decline in mathematics and the natural sciences. Botwinick (1973:185) reports that this classic aging pattern of verbal and performance scores has been demonstrated many times and now constitutes one of the best replicated results in the literature.

The fourth important area in regard to adult years is education and mental ability. It has become apparent that many of the observed age differences in performance on learning tasks result from cohort differences--from differences in experience and education (Woodruff and Walsh, 1975). Sorenson (1930) sought to test the theory that inactivity in learning, rather than age, is related to the lower learning ability of some older adults. His results indicated that there was no decline in learning ability in his sample for those who had recently taken course work. There was, however, a slight decline in learning ability with age for those who had not recently participated in course work.

More recently, Knox and Sjogren (1965) and Sjogren, Knox, and Grotelueschen (1968) consistently found that level of education and recency of participation in an educational activity were related to an adult's ability to learn. The advantage of the recent participant over the nonrecent participant was interpreted to be a function of both the recent participant's broader background knowledge and his "knowing how to learn." The occupation of the individual also appears to influence his specific learning abilities. People learn from what they do, acquiring new knowledge and skills from their work (Dickinson, 1973:27-28). And Verhage found that individuals who test higher to begin with tend to maintain their level of performance longer than those who test lower (Troll, 1973:34).

It seems clear that the aged have considerable intellectual potential and ability to learn and benefit from education. The well known productivity, high level mental functioning, and creative output of many elderly individuals who remain active and involved in new learning experiences suggest that educational stimulation may accomplish this for many others. Almost certainly, however, we may anticipate, on the basis of available evidence, that education can play a significant role in enabling the aged to maintain their intellectual effectiveness (Granick and Friedman, 1973:61).

We have now reviewed some of the literature of the physiological changes and mental abilities of the adult learner. Now let's turn our attention to the psychological changes. It is only in the very recent past that we have come to study adults and adulthood as a developmental period in itself--a time during which biological maturation, accumulated experience, and formative learning serve to shape an age group which is qualitatively distinct from childhood, adolescence, or extreme old age (Huberman, 1974). This view is prevalent throughout the research in adult education (Brunner, 1959; Kidd, 1973; Knowles, 1974; Gould, 1975; Knox, 1977). As Havighurst (1956:1) concludes, "People do not launch themselves into adulthood with the momentum of their childhood and simply coast along to old age...adulthood has its transition points and its crises...It is a developmental period in almost as complete a sense as childhood and adolescence are developmental periods."

The tasks an individual must learn--the developmental tasks of life--are those things that constitute healthy and satisfactory growth in our society. A developmental task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks while failure leads to difficulty with later tasks (Havighurst, 1972:2).

Whereas the developmental tasks of youth tend to be the products of physiological and mental maturation, those of the adult years are the products primarily of the evolution of social roles. Havighurst (1972) divides the adult years into three phases--early adulthood, middle age, and later maturity. According to Havighurst, the requirements for performing each of these social roles change as we move through the three phases of adult life, thereby setting up changing developmental tasks and, therefore, changing readiness to learn.

With the exception of Havighurst (1956), Erikson (1950), Buhler (1935), and Kohlberg (1973), dynamic theories of personality have not been concerned with the problems of change in adulthood, although people such as Fromm (1941), Maslow (1954), and Jung (1933) have indicated the profound behavioral changes which may occur in adulthood.

Neugarten (1964, 1968) sees the adult personality as continuous but not identical with the personality of the child and the adolescent. She indicates the heightened importance of introspection in the mental life of middle-aged persons--the stock-taking, the increased reflection, and, above all, the structuring and restructuring of experience. There is also a general movement of energy from an outer-world to an inner-world orientation. Thus, while it is not true that life begins at forty, it seems indeed to be true that life is different after forty.

Charlotte Buhler (1935) and her student Else Frenkel-Brunswick, from studies of four hundred biographies, proposed five stages of life that correspond to the biological phases of life. They suggested that life continues from premarriage (age 0 to 15) to preparatory expansion (age 15 to 25), to culmination and goal determination (age 25 to 45), to self-assessment (age 45 to 65), and to fulfillment or failure (age 65 and older). The key elements in this approach to the life span concept are the turning points which usher in permanent changes marking a basic transposition in development. In general, at around forty-five years of age a change takes place in that the needs which come from the biological nature of man become less important, and the duties directed by our ideals or laid down by authority and practical demands play a more dominant role. The authors call this a transfer of dominance from the field of biological need to the field of personal and social duties.

In looking at personality, Jung (1971) was interested in problems of the psyche. He indicates that in the second half of life the individual turns inward, and that this inner exploration may enable him to find a meaning and wholeness in his life that makes it possible to accept death.

Erikson (1950) delineated the life cycle and personality into eight stages, each stage being characterized by a choice or crisis for the ego. The last three stages of his model deal with the development of intimacy in early adulthood, the crisis of generativity in middle adulthood, and the crisis of ego integrity in late adulthood.

These theorists have contributed toward a theoretical framework for the recent attention being given to the mid-life period in adult development. For example, Lowenthal (1975), in her study of adult life stages, presents an analysis of the sociopsychological factors of the transitions of adult life. Her subjects were women and men at four stages of life: high school seniors, young newlyweds, middle-aged parents, and an older preretirement group from the middle and lower middle class. The field work consisted of a focused interview and several structured instruments, including the WAIS Vocabulary and Block Design subtests and the Thematic Apperception Cards.

An awareness of the psychological theories and needs in the life cycle are an important focus of those working with adults. To be apprised of the developmental stages, turning points, issues, and crises of adulthood will greatly enhance one's effectiveness in dealing with the adult learner.

One of the processes that occurs in the middle years of life which promotes change in personality is the reevaluation of time and the formulation of new perceptions of time and death (Neugarten, 1963:71). The psychology of adults is distinguished from the psychology of earlier years in the experience of time. The major events of life can be expected to occur in the plus or minus five decades of adult life. To be aware that one is behind, on, or ahead of schedule of life expectations can have a profound effect on life adjustment. Lewin says that to the child the future is vague but just ahead, to the adolescent vague but unlimited; the adult, however, has a

realistic attitude toward time which sharply differentiates his perspective from the outlook of youth (McClusky, 1963:18). Neugarten (1963:68) believes that there comes a point, usually in the middle years, when the individual realizes that time is not infinite, and that the self will die. Along with this realization may come also an end to measuring one's lifetime from the date of one's birth, and measuring it instead from the distance of one's death.

Pressey and Kuhlen (1957:303-4) indicate that the perception of sublimits of time within the total life span may also influence the perspective of adults. Some sublimits may be biologically determined. For example, time is a crucial matter for the woman who marries late and wants children, or for the professional athlete seeking wealth before he is too old. Other sublimits are culturally determined, such as the time limit felt by the clerk of thirty-five who desires to be an executive.

Another phenomenon of the adult years is the universal experience that time seems to pass faster as one grows older. For a youngster of six, one year is one-sixth of all the time he has known. For a youth of sixteen, a year is one-sixteenth of his years. For a man of forty, a year is one-fortieth of life, and at seventy, merely one seventieth of the years lived (McCluskey, 1963:18).

Wallach and Green (1961), in an experiment using 278 older and younger adults of both sexes, demonstrated that older persons consider swift metaphors more appropriate for describing time, while young adults consider static metaphors more appropriate. This finding suggests that the subjective speed of time is more directly influenced by the value of time than by a person's level of activity as such, for, while activity level decreases in old age, the value of time seems to increase. According to Kidd (1973:48), for an adult the investment of time in an activity may be as important a decision as the investment of money or effort. And Pressey and Kuhlen (1957:304) believe that sensitivity to the time variable may be one of the most distinctive features in the psychology of the adult years.

Knox (1977:371) feels that time has a key influence on motivation. The adolescent has all the time in the world ahead of him; nothing seems impossible to do. But the woman of forty-five, the man at fifty, now realize that it may already be too late for the expression of some deeply felt needs, and that all future objectives will depend upon how much time is left for their expression. The intensity of motives may deepen or lessen; a man may be determined to finish some task before it is too late, or he may become resigned to the likelihood that it will never be finished.

Among middle-class Americans, for example, career drives are likely to take precedence over many other psychological needs and dominate the years of young adulthood, perhaps even to the point of resulting in minimal contact with family. If by forty or forty-five the career-oriented individual has achieved economic security and success, the need to get ahead may be much less in evidence and the former career-oriented individual may turn to his family or to community activities as a source of gratification (Kuhlen, 1963:78-79).

While motivation is extremely complex and imperfectly understood, it is best seen within the framework of an adult's needs, goals, habits, values, and self-concept. Thus, an adult's willingness to engage in learning depends upon such factors as his perception of the value of learning, his acceptance of what and how to learn, his need for self-esteem or social affiliation with others, and expectations from life (Verner and Davison, 1971:4).

There are many different notions about motivation and its influence upon learning. From all of them, it seems clear that intrinsic motivation is far more important than extrinsic, especially when dealing with adults (Verner and Davison, 1971:4-5).

In general, adult learners enter a learning situation with a high degree of readiness to learn, but the adult wants answers that will relate directly to his life. The chances are that he will equate them to his life experiences. He makes qualitative judgments and he uses his life experiences to make new considerations. If he sees that he can gain relevant knowledge from activities in adult education, he will participate. If not, he will drop out. The fact that the adult learner is different makes the understanding of what Havighurst calls the "teachable moment" so important. That moment comes when a person has need for a skill or knowledge which will help him solve a life problem (Axford, 1969:77). Jensen (1963:21-22) contends that adult students are not always interested in maximizing their learning or becoming totally involved in each instructional situation in which they take part. Rather, they are inclined to distribute their energies and involvement according to the kind and amounts of learning they feel would be most beneficial to them in the present and for the future. Gardner Murphy (1955) points out that the adult has not fewer but more emotional associations with factual material (than do children), although we usually assume he has less because the devices of control are more elaborate and better covered in the adult. This emotional association with words or events may affect the adult in gaining new knowledge. And Jacob Getzels (1956) indicates that adults learn best the things that are in keeping with their value systems and their personal biases. In a review of experiments in learning and learning theory, Getzel shows that the adult learns best those things where he sees relationships that are relevant to him.

Another aspect of the relationship between learning and motives can be seen in the reasons adults attend programs. In an indepth study of twenty-two cases of participants in adult education activities, Cyril O. Houle investigated their purposes and objectives. Houle classifies the continuing learner as: 1) goal-oriented (those pursuing their education as a means of accomplishing fairly clearcut objectives), 2) the activity-oriented (those who take part in learning for reasons unrelated to education, perhaps out of loneliness, or a need for social activity), and 3) learning-oriented (those seeking "learning for learning's sake") Houle, 1961:15-25).

Since Houle's work, many other studies (Sheffield, 1964; Burgess, 1971; and Boshier, 1971, 1973, 1977, 1979; Grotelueschen and Caulley, 1977) have tried to assess the importance of reasons for adult participation in educational activities. For example, Burgess (1971), with his instrument "Reasons for Educational Participation," identified the following seven groups of reasons for adult participation:

The Desire to Know
The Desire to Reach a Personal Goal
The Desire to Reach a Social Goal
The Desire to Reach a Religious Goal
The Desire to Escape
The Desire to Take Part in Activity
The Desire to Comply with Formal Requirements

According to Jensen (1963:23), when adults do participate in educational activities, they are especially concerned with maintaining and enhancing their social worth and success. Adults have a strong need for the acquisition of new knowledge and skills in an instructional situation in which there is no danger of losing "hard-won" prestige. And Warren (1961) contends that adults, even more than children, are sensitive to failure in their learning situation, and that previous unfavorable experiences with education may cause fears and self-doubts about ability (Comfort, 1974).

Tuckman and Lorge (1953) conducted a study to investigate the attitudes of a young adult group of graduate students toward old age as measured by their responses to a questionnaire consisting of misconceptions and stereotypes about old people. The questionnaire was administered to 147 graduate students (92 men and 55 women) enrolled

in a course on the "Psychology of the Adult at Teachers College." This study indicated that there was a substantial acceptance of the misconceptions and stereotypes about old people. The responses indicated that these graduate students look upon old age as a period characterized by economic insecurity, poor health, loneliness, resistance to change, and failing physical and mental powers. Tuckman and Lorge conclude that from the results it appears that old people are living in a social climate which is not conducive to feelings of adequacy, usefulness, security, and to good adjustment in their later years. If these concepts are subsumed by the adult learner, the fear of aging, rather than the aging process itself, may induce mental deterioration (Horvath, 1952).

George Aker (1971:55) contends that adults are more bound to their stereotypes than are children. This follows through with almost every attitude, belief, and set of values of an adult. He's tied to them more. It is more difficult to set them aside for awhile and entertain some conflicting, opposing points of view. Zahn (1967) indicates that the way in which a person organizes his perceptions, as well as what he selects to perceive, is influenced by what he expects; and what he expects depends on his experience and his motives. It is more difficult to change the perceptions of an adult than of a child because the adult has had more prior experience.

Adults have different values, interests, and personality traits than youth has, and their concerns and dispositions tend to be more stable (Zahn, 1967). Studies by Strong (1953), Thorndike (1953), and others indicate the following changes in adult interests:

1. Activities requiring physical skill and daring decrease in liking as one ages.
2. With few exceptions, liking for occupations decreases with age.
3. Interests can be modified.
4. Slight decrease in the total volume of interest from the twenties to the fifties.

In conclusion of this section let us remember that change and consistency in adult personality constitute a problem area that thus far has attracted relatively few psychologists; nevertheless, evidence is beginning to accumulate that systematic and measurable changes occur in the second half of life (Neubarten, 1968). Adults change through the years in their sense of time, their career pattern, their physiological condition, and their complex of interests and motivations. An adult psychology is a necessity for continuing education (Huberman, 1974).

Having reviewed some of these changes that have occurred throughout adulthood, let us now discuss how these differences will affect an adult's orientation to learning. In this section the following areas will be discussed: andragogy, experience, adult learning orientation, and implications for the adult teacher.

According to Malcolm Knowles (1975), most of what is known about learning has been derived from studies of learning in children and animals. Most of what is known about teaching has been derived from experience with teaching children under compulsory attendance. Birren and Woodruff (1973) feel that teachers who are currently employed, as well as those now being trained, are not prepared to teach middle-aged and aged adults, and they are not being provided with appropriate information about the biological, psychological, and sociological aspects of life span development.

When adult education began to emerge as a field of social practice, it simply borrowed the assumptions and strategies of pedagogy. But when a falling retention rate in adult classes was noted, teachers began experimenting with different assumptions and strategies, and there began to emerge a body of literature describing successful teachers of adults.

In the early 1960's European adult educators, especially in France, Germany, Yugoslavia, and the Netherlands, started using the label "andragogy" to identify this increasingly differentiated body of theory and technology of adult learning which gave credence to the differing learning orientations of children and adults. The connotation given to this new label was "the art and science of helping adults learn."

Having lived longer and having a greater apperceptive mass of past experiences, adults are not only much more complex than children, but they are also more differentiated and less dependent on immediate influences of the environment (Huberman, 1974). Kidd (1973:45-56) indicates three basic ways in which adulthood differs from youth in the human life cycle: (1) adults have more experiences; (2) adults have different kinds of experiences; and (3) the life experiences of adults are organized differently.

An adult's sexual or social experiences are of a kind that mark him off from the world of children. The same can be said for experiences of a job, or politics, or war. But this point has not always been understood or accepted (Kidd, 1959:45). An adult brings to learning situations a tremendous range of stored learning--the accumulations from experiences in everyday living. These are the most important resources for learning (Lorge, 1963; Hendrickson, 1970). Conversely, in the case of many adults, especially older ones, long experience will cause them to be set in their ways and resentful of change (Hendrickson, 1970). According to Zahn (1967), the greater experience a person has had, the more the past probably will interfere with the present. It is easier for an experienced person to learn a completely new task than to learn to do a familiar task in a new way.

The more the teacher of adults can base his/her teaching upon previous experience, the better and faster the adult will learn. The teacher should urge the adult to relate new or difficult concepts to his own experience and to use the past to help himself with the present and the future (Zahn, 1957; Whipple, 1957).

Adults, even more than children, bring attitudes with them into the learning situation that markedly affect their ability to learn or their motivation. Those adults with strong feelings of powerlessness will fail to learn to control relevant information. Adults will be more motivated to listen and to read content which may increase their competence in a current situation (Zahn, 1969).

Comfort (1974) indicates that adult learners want educational experiences or knowledge which is related to job/life situations. He further contends that adults are more interested in applied knowledge than in theory, and they enter into a learning situation in a problem-centered frame of mind.

One of the assumptions of andragogy is that the adult's time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly his orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness (the traditional seven subjects of youth eradication) to one of problem-centeredness (Knowles, 1970).

This change in orientation supports Jensen's (1963) contention that adult students are not always interested in maximizing their learning or becoming "totally" involved in each instructional situation in which they take part. Rather, they are inclined to distribute their energy and involvement according to the kind and amounts of learning they feel would be most beneficial immediately and for the future. He also feels that adult students should be able to influence their own learning goals as a means of making certain that these goals take account of their needs and problems. Since the adult has compelling responsibilities competing for his time and attention, many adults desire minimum time expenditures to complete their educational objectives (Comfort, 1974).

From a series of studies conducted at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Tough (1979:1) and his associates discovered that it is common for an adult to spend seven hundred hours a year at learning projects, and about 70 percent of all learning projects are planned by the learner himself. Hiemstra (1976:33) states that many educators are beginning to pay attention not only to the uniqueness of the adult learner, but also to the tremendous interest in and need for self-directed, individual learning.

In an article on adult learning and modification of attitudes, Andersen (1969) comments that adults learn more effectively and quickly in a noncompetitive atmosphere where they can cooperate with others and use their experience to foster learning. Ross (1968), in a study on the "Effects of Challenging and Supportive Instructions on Verbal Learning in Older Adults," gave sixty young and sixty old subjects two paired-associate learning tasks differing in level of difficulty under neutral, supportive, and challenging instruction. Older subjects revealed a greater performance decrement on the more difficult task than did the younger group. Elderly subjects did least well on the acquisition phase of learning under challenging instructions and best under the supportive treatment. Ross concluded that the increasing insecurity and susceptibility to stress of aging individuals become particularly evident when they are placed in an evaluative situation and told that their performance will be compared with that of others.

Haines and McKeachie (1967) found that required competition was a potent factor in raising anxiety levels. They also found that when compounded by the learner's existing anxiety level, the tension created by class competition, especially under a competitive grading system, resulted in an undesirable situation. According to Knowles (1970:43), "Nothing makes an adult feel more childlike than being judged by another adult; it is the ultimate sign of disrespect and dependency, as the one who is being judged experiences it." He feels evaluation should be a mutual undertaking, as are all other phases of the adult learning experience.

Woodruff and Walsh (1975) indicate that for older adults the threat of evaluation such as objective tests graded on a competitive basis probably should be avoided. Pankowski (1975) comments that teachers of adults should work with them in developing mutually acceptable criteria and methods for measuring progress; helping the learner to develop and apply procedures for self-assessment according to these criteria. Involving the learners in selecting objectives enhances motivation and learning. Specific objectives are stated in measurable terms: 1) to assess the learning outcome that is sought so the teacher can help effectively design the instruction; and 2) to facilitate measuring learning outcomes--whatever capability of the learner can't be specified in observable human performance can't be measured.

According to Larson (1970), too few teachers know enough about the adult learner's anxiety level. Many adults come to their classes with a good deal of insecurity and anxiety about their ability to succeed in a new learning situation (Larson, 1970: Pankowski, 1975; Basowitz and Korchin, 1957). Many adult students feel they do not possess the necessary study skills (Comfort, 1974). In a study of the characteristics and educational needs of adult undergraduate students at the University of Oklahoma (Barney, 1972), some of the most frequent "suggestions" were refresher courses and help in learning how to study. Jensen (1965) contends that the learning tasks designed for adults must be commensurate with the study skills they possess so as not to confront them with a situation in which a loss of personal esteem is likely to result.

Henrickson (1970) feels that coming from a world of work where mistakes are costly, most adults have higher standards of performance than do children or youth; therefore,

they have a strong need for the acquisition of knowledge and skills in an instructional situation in which there is no danger of losing "hard-won" prestige (Jensen, 1965; Glass and Harshberger, 1974).

Knox (1974) reports that adults learn more effectively when they receive feedback regarding how well they are progressing. Punishment and threatening instructions slow up the learning process in adults much more than in children (Anderson, 1969; Lorge, 1965; Dickinson, 1973; Knox, 1974).

One of the basic principles of adult learning is that the students should be able to learn at their own pace. By far the most constant modification in behavior noted with advancing age is a decline in performance on speeded tasks (Birren, 1964, 1970). For example, Eisdorfer, Axelrod, and Wilkie (1963) established that when the time to respond is increased in serial learning the old benefit more than the young. The same effect has been found in paired-associate studies. Canestrari (1963) reported that paired-associate performance of the old improved more than that of the young when the pace was slowed (Arenberg, 1973). Adults typically learn most effectively when they set their own pace and take a break periodically. If an adult is forced to proceed much slower or faster than his perferred pace, his learning effectiveness declines (Knox, 1974).

Belbin (1953) conducted a study into difficulties that older people experienced in thirty-two factories. Where work was subject to time stress (when tempo of work was maintained by rigid pacing or time pressure), there was some tendency both for men and women to move away from operations requiring continuous body movement and activity especially where the worker was paced by a machine or conveyor.

In conclusion, I want to review the points which I have discussed. The adult educator must be aware of--the physiological changes in the adult learner, the mental abilities of the adult learner, and the psychological factors affecting the adult learner. Once these factors are taken into consideration, the facilitator will be much more successful in establishing a well-attended and valuable program.

FIGURE 1

Estimated Percentage of the Population
with Defective Vision

Age	Percent Defective
Twenty	23
Thirty	39
Forty	48
Fifty	71
Sixty	82
Seventy	95

FIGURE 2

The Progressive Increase in Wattage
Required for Visual Tasks

Age	Wattage Required
Twenty	100
Thirty	120
Forty	145
Fifty	180
Sixty	230
Seventy	300
Eighty	415

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"Learning How To Learn"

by

Dr. Robert Smith

Learning how to learn is my favorite subject, one that I have been concerned with since I entered the field in 1953. It was one of the first things that my mentor, Paul Bergevin, told me--that learning how to learn is one of the most important aspects of adult education. I didn't know what he meant. In fact, I didn't know much about adult education because I was learning by apprenticeship. Then after two years I began to get a notion about the concept and have been intrigued with it ever since. I confess that I find it a hard one to explain. You may say, "Well, what am I doing here then?" Well, I keep trying and sometimes people say they understand. Later on I find that I haven't made it very clear. It's not a simple concept. It is one of the most difficult and complex ones to understand that I have encountered in my professional life. And I'm quite willing to admit that I don't fully understand it yet myself and perhaps won't, but that makes it all the more intriguing. I've been reinforced enough by colleagues and other people who seem to know what they're doing to conclude that it is a viable and useful concept. It is certainly one that many educators and adult education leaders have endorsed. If you become sensitive to it, begin looking in the literature a bit, you will find scarcely a major figure in adult education (or youth education) who at some time has not said, "Yes, learning how to learn is very important. Learning how to learn is an important aspect of adult education and the adult learning process."

Many of the ideas I will express come from my article in Adult Education, Vol. 28, No. 1, 1977. Perhaps some idea of what learning how to learn is all about can be conveyed through rhetorical questions. Notice I say what the concept is about rather than what it is, because it's not easy to say exactly what it is. Now, let me ask some rather personal questions designed to try to objectify the learning how to learn concept. Do you know how to lead a discussion or chair a committee so that it accomplishes the group task and meets the needs of the individuals present? Do you know how to get the most from the teacher or another resource person? Do you know your rights as a learner? Are you afraid to ask an instructor about the specific objectives of a course, and how you are going to know if you get your money's worth? In case you have a car with a cassette player, do you know where to get tapes so that you can learn while you're driving through the desert? Do you know how to get a college or an extension division to respond to an emerging need in your community? Do you know how to plan, conduct and evaluate a personal learning project? Do you know how to conduct an ERIC search? Do you know how to change gears when you're reading? I've known graduate students who were still on page 100 of the textbook by the end of the semester. They weren't dumb. They weren't unmotivated. But they didn't know how to read some things fast, some things slow, how to scan. They didn't lack basic reading skill but they lacked the skill to read effectively for studying and learning purposes although they were perfectly literate.

Do you know how to cope with exam anxiety? Do you know how to build a portfolio to get credit for life experience, if perchance you can find a place that will give it? Do you know how to set realistic personal learning objectives for the intended subject? Or do you tend to set objectives for yourself that either are too high or too low? Do you know how to keep a learning log? Do you know how to use the community as a

resource for learning? Those are a bunch of "how" questions.

Do you have insight into the matter of when to learn? Do you know when you learn the best? Do you do like I do? I attack the difficult in the morning, the less difficult in the afternoon, and the superficial at night. That's my particular system. If I attack the difficult at night, I'm usually soon sound asleep. Have you thought about where you learn best? Will you learn some things best in the library, some at home, some with the radio on? Have you thought about whether or not you have any personal blocks to learning? For example, have you had difficulty in competitive learning situations? Do you prefer collaborative learning situations? Does your motivation tend to lag under certain conditions? Have you worked out ways of coping with those blocks, to minimize their effects and maximize your own learning strengths? And lastly, do you know about sources of help if you have problems or you want to gain a skill in any of these areas?

Well, I certainly can't do all these things myself. These are the kinds of things that learning how to learn is all about. All of these matters and many similar concerns are part of the complex and very significant area of inquiry and practice which we put this label on--learning how to learn. The list could easily be expanded. For those who like definitions it's a concept that "involves the adult's having or acquiring the knowledge, skills and attitudes that he or she requires for effective learning in whatever learning situation is encountered."

The contemporary adult will encounter in a lifetime many learning situations and many different settings and contexts. For classification purposes, we can say that typically these are likely to be in three major contexts, or three major modes. One is the more traditional mode, institutional kinds of settings (which for a lot of people equal education); that is, schooling or enrolling in college or taking a course for credit, or perhaps non-credit; or some kind of a delivery system operated by an institution, like a correspondence course. From there we can talk about the collaborative mode which emphasizes group learning. It usually involves a face-to-face type of situation as when a person joins a discussion group at the library or church or takes part in a workshop that emphasizes small group learning. Probably you have experienced both positive and negative results in collaborative learning. You know how sweet or bitter that mode of learning can be--sweet if the participants have learned how to learn collaboratively, and chaotic and wasteful if the people do not have the skills for it.

And lastly, we know that there is a great amount of learning on our own or independent learning or self-directed learning. I have been around this and tried to decide what label I prefer. I keep coming back to an awkward but simple phrase, "learning on your own" because "self-directed learning" cuts across all three modes. We want people to be more self-directed in all three. So I've been using the label "learning on your own," when one conducts a personal learning project.

We are not sure precisely how this learning how to learn concept fits into the complex matter of learning itself and learning theory. I am not an expert in learning theory but I've read enough to know that most learning theorists agree that learning is a complex matter, one about which there are many different orientations and points of view and communication problems when you try to pin it down. But we can be pretty certain that there is a learning how to learn component or dimension of learning itself. An obvious example would be if someone receives instruction in something and turns out afterwards to dislike that subject. He has learned maybe not only the chemistry but also that he doesn't like chemistry--so-called deutero-learning.

Turning to the field of adult education, let's look at a couple of examples where authorities have said that the learning how to learn dimension is very much present in the learning process. Some of you who are in the field of adult basic education or some aspect of remedial education of adults may have encountered the so-called Maryland tapes, a set of 30 half hour tapes designed for inservice training of ABE teachers. In tape No. 4, which deals with the learning process, it is stated that there are four main elements in the learning process. The first one is our old friend "goals." Learning usually involves goals and objectives. It usually involves "reinforcement" as we've seen expressed in many textbooks. Thirdly, it involves "knowledge of results" or "feedback." Fourth, right up there with that big three, the tape lists "learning how to learn. So they're coming out pretty strongly, saying that learning how to learn is all bound up in the learning process.

Another example is from the field of adult education and adult learning. Paul Bergevin, Professor of Adult Education at Indiana University and the leading figure in the development of the so-called Indiana Plan (or participation training), says that learning how to learn is one of seven optimum conditions for learning. He approaches learning and program development from the point of view of the question, "Under what conditions do adults learn best?" He says they learn most effectively when they accept responsibility for learning; when they share in program development; when the situation is a voluntary one. He stresses the importance of the voluntary aspect of adult education. Adults learn best in a climate that permits freedom of expression, when they can put to use what they learn, and when appropriate adult methods are used. He goes on to say that when they have learned how to activate the first six conditions, then they will learn effectively.

Now consider the so-called T-group or laboratory approach to learning which held such great sway in the 50's and 60's, when we couldn't go anywhere without hearing about training group laboratories. All kinds of institutions in a variety of settings were conducting intensive "laboratory learning" experiences built around group process. The leading spokesman for the vast literature dealing with group dynamics and group process, Leland Bradford, stated that the person who participates in the laboratory approach to learning in that kind of group process experience will need to grow in four major areas. First of all, he or she will have to grow in membership skills, will have to become an effective group member in order to utilize that method. Secondly, the person will have to develop helping skills, the kind of skills where you can give feedback to other people in the group and they can give feedback to you. Thirdly, he or she will have to become sensitive to the group process. In other words, the person will have to have certain sensitivities in order to learn collaboratively. And lastly, Bradford says he or she will have to learn how to learn as one of the four major dimensions of group process used for purposes of growth and change. That is in the Bible of the group dynamics movement, T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method (John Wiley, 1964).

And we find learning how to learn in the community development movement which again was in full sway in the 50's and 60's. The movement culminated in the more confrontation oriented approaches of Alinsky and others as we moved into the so-called revolutionary period of the late 60's--in somewhat the same way that the group dynamics and group process movement evolved into sensitivity training at about the same time. The foremost authorities on community development, the Biddles, in their book, The Community Development Process, published in 1965, talked about the heart of community development being a process of bringing about change in individuals and groups. The process involves learning to rely less on professionals and on traditional educational approaches, and learning to develop collaborative and problem-solving techniques and skills.

So here are some of the leading authorities in the broad field of adult education reiterating that there is a learning how to learn dimension to various approaches to adult education and to adult learning. Now if we can take it on faith that there is a learning how to learn dimension to adult education, then we can ask ourselves, "What are some of the subcomponents, or dimensions, or aspects of this learning how to learn concept itself?" At this point in my attempts to try to understand it, conceptualize it, and give it form, I see the concept as involving three major threads or aspects--one of need, or needs; one of style, learning style; and one of training.

What I mean by needs is the understanding of knowledge of skills required by the adult learner to function effectively in whatever context he or she finds himself/herself. Now I have tried with the help of my colleague, Kay Haverkamp, to set forth a development model of these needs (see Figure 2). In other words, these are categories of needs, or the competencies or understandings that people should have in order to be effective learners. The reason they are arranged as a hierarchy is that the ones at the bottom could be had without being literate. As you can see, we have raised the so-called basic skills in the second level. That may seem incongruous. But let us take a so-called underdeveloped or primitive society, a preliterate society and examine learning within it. If you have studied anthropology or had the experience of being in that type of society, you know that there is a lot of learning that goes on. The society has its own traditional schools, so-called bush schools, for example, and the culture is transmitted and the people learn to do things or they wouldn't exist as a society. So there has always been adult learning in society. They don't doubt that learning is possible. They didn't have to know how to read to find out that learning is possible. They may not know that it is developmental. Some of them may have realized that it usually is accompanied by anxiety and the existence of tension. They may have developed ways of helping learners to overcome that. But these general understandings are rather arbitrary.

At the next level in our own type of society so much learning is dependent upon the basic skills. A few years back we realized that our regular educational channels were not producing all of these skills. So we've had an emphasis on remedial education for adults, and the so-called ABE and GED have become one of the few adult education areas of a non-vocational nature that our government has put significant amounts of money into in the last few years. Of course, there is a lot of learning that goes on in our contemporary society that does not involve reading. But we agree that for successful learning you have to have a certain level of these basic skills.

Moving up the hierarchy, depending on what kind of learning you do, we see our friends, the three modes. For the institutional mode, you need certain kinds of skills--study skills, exam taking skills, research paper writing skills, etc.--most of which tend to get learned through the formal school process. If one is involved in collaborative learning, one needs certain skills--listening skills; the ability to discuss and stay on the topic, to carry on in a collaborative manner, not dominate others.

Allen Tough mentions the kinds of skills that are useful when one is conducting personal learning projects. In his book The Adult's Learning Projects, he laments the fact that our institutions don't give people enough help. Our adult education institutions are terribly busy programming, figuring out what non-credit course will go in Pickwick Junction. It never occurs to them to help the people who are already learning on their own to be more effective. But there are the skills that would go with that--the ability to plan, conduct, and evaluate personal learning projects.

Moving on to the area of self-knowledge, we can hypothesize or assert that in this area of learning style are a lot of implications for needs. People can learn more about their style, and programmers and teachers can learn more about the individual's learning style. The individuals can learn about the personal blocks that they have to learning and thus become more competent learners. And lastly, at the more theoretical or knowledge-building level, we need people to do research, to develop training strategies, and to better understand the dimensions and implications of the concept. This is what I mean by needs.

What do I mean by styles? It has long been apparent to teachers, educators, and other observant persons that people differ in how they go about certain kinds of activities associated with learning--they differ as to how they think. They differ as to how they may approach problem-solving. And they differ as to how they go about the so-called information processing or putting information through their minds. For example, some people like to get the big picture first and then build up understanding of that big picture by detail, by examples. Other people like to have examples and detail, and evolve some kind of meaningful construct or picture or theory or way of looking at an area of knowledge out of the details. Some people like theory before they go to practice; others don't. I found this out when I was learning how to play chess. A group of five of us were quarantined in Nigeria due to social unrest. We had to do something all day so we set out to teach ourselves chess. One person knew a little bit about it. So for about eight weeks we averaged six hours a day playing chess. I was the only one who went to the bookstore, bought books on chess and went home and read them. After about eight weeks I was the fourth best of the five players! Maybe I would have been even worse without theory. But I certainly wasn't getting ahead of my friends who scoffed at the idea; they just kept playing. If we had all set the goal of becoming professional chess players, would they have given in at some point and gotten more theory? But what struck me was how completely different was my approach to learning that game than those other people.

There's nothing new about this. A lot of the emphasis on individualizing instruction that we've had in both adult education circles and education of children and youth over the last few decades stems from this kind of notion. A lot of the streaming that has gone on has rested on the knowledge that people differ in the way they carry out some of these processes. They differ as far as certain preferences and dispositions that they have. For example, with regard to method, you'll hear people say, "I don't like discussion." Or, "I went to a workshop and they tried role playing--I don't like those kinds of things." With field trips some people say, "I just get behind and I get lost and I don't know what I've seen." "I never can get up front." "I can't hear what they're saying." "You can take your field trips." Or they differ with regard to the amount of structure and autonomy that they want. Some of them say, "Just tell me what the goal is and let me go, and I'll get there." Others say, "Tell me what to do at every stage." And some are in the middle. They say, "I want some structure and I want some freedom." They differ on how they feel about competition versus collaboration. Sometimes people find themselves in a graduate seminar where the instructor sets them against each other; some get uptight and even drop out. Others just thrive on it.

People differ in regard to study habits and preferences--being a "morning" person or an "evening" person; whether they can go steadily or whether they have to break it up. I studied fairly hard my freshman year at college; but there were two would-be engineers in our dorm who were at their desks at 5:30 every evening and never got up till 11:00. They both sat there side by side for 5-1/2 hours. I won't go more than two hours without getting up, walking around, thinking, resettling and finding another excuse not to go back. These things have long been apparent, but now there is a growing body of research which

leaves little doubt that there is a sound basis for taking learning style seriously, and that it is itself a viable subconcept or component of this whole learning how to learn notion. People do have identifiable styles and styles have important implications for program planning, teaching and learning. At least one college has designed and implemented its entire curriculum around the concept of style--Oakland Community College in Michigan.

Research is being done on style by people from a variety of disciplines--psychologists, educational psychologists, communications experts and educators of children, youth, and adults. Of course, there is still a variety of orientations about what it is that we're talking about and, therefore, a variety of methodologies being used and a variety of findings. More important for us in adult education, who tend to be application minded, there is a variety of points of view toward what are the applications. The respected researcher, Witken, who studied this concept for a quarter century, called style a potent variable that affects academic and vocational choices, learner interaction with instructors and resources and learning itself, as well as academic development.

We're beginning to get the necessary kind of basic research but we need a lot of second-stage research, application research, which will enable us to translate these findings about style into practical program implications for adults. For now, it seems quite clear that adults differ significantly in their cognitive processes, in their attitudes toward learning, in their preferences for the mode or methodology used, and their environmental preferences and dispositions. We define style as a characteristic way of feeling and functioning consistently manifested in the education and learning situation. When we seek to alter styles, when we seek to help people make adjustments in styles, when we seek to maximize people's strengths and minimize their weaknesses or their blocks, then we're moving into the realm of training--our third dimension of the learning how to learn concept.

Training we define as deliberate, organized activity to help the adult gain competence in learning. These can be such specific things as memory exercises, trying to help people improve their memory. In those Maryland ABE tapes there is a teacher who tries to teach her classes to remember things more readily. She uses mnemonic devices. For example, she recites eight digit numbers and they can't recall. "Notice now," she says, "that was 1492 and 1942, and then it is easy." The first time she read off the eight digits, they couldn't get it, but when she showed them the pattern there, they were successful. That's what I call training--helping them learn to become more effective learners. It might be providing for practice in setting learning objectives. Most of you have done that along the way. It can be a workshop in discussion skills or study skills or a two-hour orientation to the library. All of these things we call training.

We use the word training to get out of awkward constructions like education about education or learning experiences about learning. If we put the label training on these kinds of experiences, it facilitates communication. I can say I am interested in the training aspects of learning how to learn or, in other words, organized attempts to help people learn more effectively.

We have many more training activities and designs perfected in the collaborative area than in the other two, for example, the participation training that came out of Indiana University, and the laboratory learning that came out of National Training Lab. These kinds of things have given us tested training designs for learning how to learn collaboratively. Here and there we can find organized training readily available for learning in the traditional mold. We have very little to help people in learning on their

own. If you want to make a name for yourself, develop some good designs for teaching people to become more effective learners on their own, but I don't think that's a viable term. We do have the book of training resources regarding learning on your own by Malcolm Knowles, Self-Directed Learning. It would be an ideal tool to use but I don't think it would get the job done by itself. Learning skills usually are not developed by reading alone; most skills aren't. And there is the matter of "can do" versus "won't do." Usually learning how to learn, often unlearning, involves both emotion and cognition so you're more than likely to change your learning behavior in some type of context like a workshop. Malcolm Knowles has been conducting workshops on self-directed learning but that is about the only source I know of for such training. It is one of the most intriguing areas for real creativity because it takes real design skills when you're dealing with learning about learning. It can be a lot of fun and doesn't have to be complex--it can be small bits and pieces like the ABE teacher improvising on the tape. I've tried to show that these three dimensions of learning how to learn are not linear--they are all interrelated.

One final question is, "What are the implications for administrators, teachers, programmers, counselors of adults?" (see Figure 2) Well, if those who operate programs for adults take the learning how to learn concept seriously, they will want to provide more orientation and training for people who participate in their programs. They will want to make sure that they build into their delivery systems the approaches they use, this component of learning how to learn. They won't use correspondence study with people who can't read. They won't use discussion with people who don't know how to discuss. They won't use field trips with people who don't like to travel, or study tours abroad for people who don't know how to take advantage of travel study. They'll teach them how to profit from travel study. They'll give them some process, not just content.

Counselors will talk to students when they're having problems, not only in terms of personal problems or problems with the instructor, but also learning and learning style problems. Is there something about the particular mode that is being used? Is that why the person feels he isn't getting much out of it? There should be the learning how to learn dimension. Instructors or facilitators could devote some time to saying, "Okay, what are we learning here? What did we also learn about learning this?" Do you see the difference? We'll be helping students to increase their insights into the learning process as well as the content or skills that they are getting in the subject matter. Lastly, leaders in the field could begin to take this more seriously by fostering research, training opportunities, communication about it, incorporating it into curriculum to train adult educators, and helping to train trainers.

These are potentially profound implications--that professionally we should take this matter seriously. When we lecture to people who can't learn very much from a lecture, or when we sell a correspondence course to a poor reader, or when we send the student to the lab without teaching him how to use the hardware there, we're programming learners for failure by not taking into account the learning how to learn dimension. I see the implications as very strong for our professional responsibilities, for teaching, learning, administration, and graduate instruction. The potential is very great for some intriguing kinds of investigations, for the development of training tools and designs. Inherent in this admittedly complex concept are some potentially motivating and exceptional kinds of experiences that will break us out of the routine with some of our jobs.

Figure 1: Hierarchy of Needs Concerning Learning-How-to-Learn

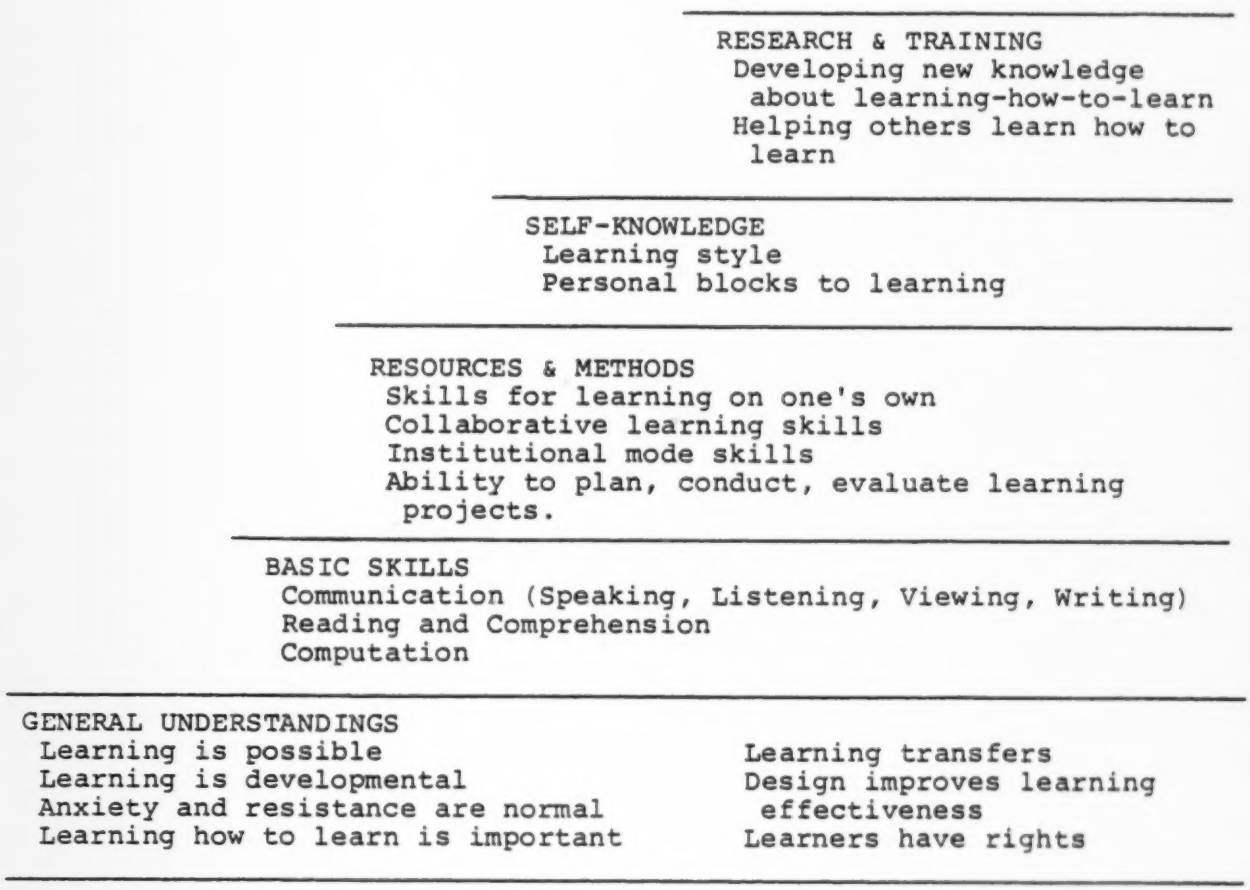

Figure 2: Implications for Adult Educators of Learning-How-to-Learn

Roles	Action-Responsibility
senior administrator, coordinator, program developer, counselor	Provide learning-how-to-learn orientation and training for program participants and staff.
	Build concept into program activities and counseling
facilitator, instructor, aide, resource person, consultant	Include provision for learning-how-to learn.
	Give and get feedback about learning skills development.
	Take concept into account in selecting procedures.
university faculty member, other researcher, state and national leader	Foster research and dissemination regarding theory and application of the concept.
	Incorporate into university curriculum.
	Help to train trainers.

Suggested Reading List

by

Robert Smith

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"Assessing Teaching Style in Adult Education: How and Why"

by

Dr. Gary J. Conti

Introduction

Recent sessions at the National Adult Education Conference, Commission on Adult Basic Education Conference, and Adult Education Research Conference indicate a growing interest among practitioners and researchers in the area of teaching style. While past emphasis has been on the characteristics of the adult education teacher (e.g., Mocker, 1974), the current focus is on the actual behavior that the teacher demonstrates in the classroom. These "distinctive qualities of behavior that are consistent through time and carry over from situation to situation (Fischer & Fischer, 1979, p. 245) are referred to as teaching style. Style is a pervasive quality that persists even though the content that is being taught may change. A variety of terms and behavior have been identified and labeled as teaching styles (Dunn & Dunn, 1979; Fischer & Fischer, 1979). While behaviors in each style are not mutually exclusive, each style emphasizes a dominant mode of the teacher. This teaching style label is a hypothetical construct which is associated with various identifiable sets of teacher behavior and which is a useful tool "to understand and perhaps explain certain important aspects of the teaching-learning process" (Fischer & Fischer, 1979, p. 254).

Teachers display a wide variety of behaviors in the classroom. These differences in classroom practices have been referred to by terms such as initiating and responsive behavior (Flanders, 1970), progressivism and traditionalism (Bennett, 1976; Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1968), and andragogy and pedagogy (Knowles, 1970). Despite the existence of divergent teaching styles, a significantly large portion of the adult education literature supports the collaborative mode as the most effective and appropriate style for teaching adults. The collaborative mode refers to a learner-centered method of instruction in which authority for curriculum formation is jointly shared by the learner and the practitioner. Key contributors to the adult education literature address this concept and the elements that operationalize the collaborative mode. Strong arguments can be found in the literature to support the concepts that (a) the curriculum should be learner-centered, (b) learning activities should be related to the learner's experiences, (c) adults are self-directed, (d) the learner should be involved in entrance and exit assessments, (e) adults are problem-centered, and (f) the teacher should function as a facilitator.

The Collaborative Mode

The collaborative mode is a process oriented approach to teaching. The emphasis is upon what the learner is doing. The teacher's primary task is to organize and maintain an environment which facilitates student learning. In this way adult education is a cooperative venture in which the learner is a full partner (Bergevin, 1967, p. 168). It is assumed in this venture that adults are seeking increased self-direction (Knowles, 1970, p. 39) and that they have the inherent ability to control their own lives (Freire, 1970). The curriculum is built around the particular problems and life situations of the

learners rather than around a predetermined set of subjects for the classification of knowledge (Lindeman, 1926/1961, p. 6). Its content is problem-centered with subjects used as examples and vehicles of learning. Adult education, thus, occurs within the democratic process (Bergevin, 1967, p. 35) as the learners take responsibility for their own learning (Kidd, 1976).

The collaborative mode depends on active student participation. The learner is involved in needs diagnosis, goals formation, and outcomes evaluation. To achieve this, the student's experiences are utilized. Learning activities are related to life experiences to help students become more aware of significant events in their lives (Lindeman, 1926/1961, p. 109). Experiences serve as a constantly growing resource for learning (Knowles, 1970, p. 39) and can stimulate adult engagement in learning (Kidd, 1976, p. 271).

Major figures argue a forceful and comprehensive case in favor of the collaborative mode. Their conclusions are based upon the findings of psychology and adult learning. Yet, questions remain; are adults taught differently than children, and does teaching style make any difference? Recent studies have attempted to address these questions. Beder and Darkenwald (1982) found that those who teach both adults and children or pre-adults, teach them differently. Most of the variance in this study was associated with the teacher's perceptions related to learner characteristics such as intellectual curiosity, openness, and degree of self-direction (p. 153). In a check on the predictive validity of the Principles of Adult Learning Scale, Conti found that a group of 80 secondary education teachers in Texas scored 1.67 standard deviations below the average for adult educators on the instrument. This group overwhelmingly supported a teacher-centered approach to education. Both of these studies indicate a distinct difference in the teacher's behavior in the adult setting.

Teaching style can affect student achievement. The relationship of teaching style to student achievement was investigated in an adult basic education program in Southern Texas (Conti, 1984b). The teaching style of 29 part-time teachers was assessed with the Principles of Adult Learning Scale, and the achievement of their 837 students was analyzed. Analysis of covariance indicated that the teacher's style had a significant influence on the amount of student academic gain. Contrary to the adult education literature base, students of the teacher-centered instructors showed the greatest gains. However, the results changed when the total hours of student attendance were controlled. In this situation, the students of the collaborative, learner-centered instructors achieved the most.

These conflicting results stimulated an analysis of the data which was broken down by the three types of classes in the program. In addition to having basic level classes, the program also offered preparatory courses for the General Educational Development (GED) test and courses in English as a Second Language (ESL). A significant interaction was found between teaching style and the nature of the course. The teacher-centered approach was the most effective in the GED class. On the other hand, the learner-centered approach helped students learn more in the basic level and the ESL class settings. This study adds situational specificity to the adult education literature. Instead of broadly stating that the collaborative mode is the most effective approach for all students in an adult basic education setting, it indicates that the goals of the learner need to be considered. For the GED student whose sights are clearly set on the short-term task of passing the predefined GED examination, a teacher-centered approach is efficient. However, basic level and ESL students are concerned with the long-term process of acquiring skills related to reading, mathematics, and English proficiency. This process involves the student's self-concept, and the teacher can play a crucial role in developing a supportive environment in which the learners can take risks, experiment with their new

learning, and discover things about themselves (Fellenz, 1982, p. 82). These findings switch the general argument from a combative stance of which style is best to a more practical position of when is each style most appropriate.

Assessing Teaching Style

While researchers are probing for a better understanding of the effectiveness of different teaching styles in various settings, the individual practitioner is ultimately responsible for improving the delivery of services to the adult learner. In order to relate to the teaching style research, to internalize its findings, and to make decisions for future practice and staff development, instructors must be able to assess their own teaching style. A variety of factors will influence a teacher's personal style. Educational philosophy will be a critical factor. Also, increased support of the collaborative mode is noticeable with additional academic training and with increased age (Conti, 1984a; Pearson, 1980). Experiential background may also influence style. A knowledge of one's own style can allow the teacher to better understand how each of these has contributed to his/her overall behavior in the classroom. It can also identify areas of strength and areas for future development. Elias and Merriam (1980) have suggested that the difference between those who are just practicing a profession and professionals is an awareness of the causal factors behind their basic behavior (p. 9). Therefore, the assessment of teaching style can be an important step in the development of a professional teacher.

Practitioners can assess their teaching style with the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS). This 44-item instrument is a summative rating scale using a modified Likert scale. Respondents indicate the frequency with which they practice the action described in the items. Scores may range from 0 to 220. The mean for the instrument is 146 with a standard deviation of 20. These normative scores for PALS remain consistent across various groups that practice adult education (Conti, 1983). The instrument can be completed in approximately 10 to 15 minutes and can be self-scored (see Appendix).

PALS is based on the principles that are advanced in the adult education literature (Conti, 1978, 1979, 1982). The total score on PALS gives an indication of a practitioner's overall preference for teaching behavior in an adult education setting. Since the literature supports the collaborative teaching-learning mode in which authority for curriculum formation is shared by the learner and the practitioner, high scores on PALS have been designated to reflect a learner-centered approach to the teaching-learning transaction. A low score on PALS indicates a preference for the teacher-centered approach in which authority resides with the instructor. Scores near the mean indicate a combination of teaching behaviors which draw elements from both the learner-centered and the teacher-centered approach. Thus, the score indicates the overall teaching style and the strength of teacher support for this style.

Experiential evidence from counseling with practitioners after taking the PALS indicates that scores near the mean reflect the practice of conflicting behaviors. While these teachers practice some actions that are congruent with one mode, others are antithetical. Although some seek to argue that this indicates an eclectic approach to diverse classroom situations, an analysis of the factors making up the scale often uncovers basic conflicts in the practitioner's classroom behavior. Such conflicts can send confusing messages to students, undermine the student's ability to predict teacher actions, and demonstrate the lack of a comprehensive understanding of an educational philosophy as an organizing force for a personal credo to direct classroom behaviors.

Factors in PALS

The overall PALS score can be broken down into seven factors. These factors are the basic elements that make up an instructor's general teaching mode. The support of the collaborative mode in the adult education literature is reflected in the factor titles. High scores in each area represent support for the concept implied in the factor name. Low scores indicate support of the opposite concept. For example, a high score on the first factor indicates a learner-centered approach to teaching; a low score represents support of a teacher-centered approach. Factor scores are calculated by adding up the points for each item in the factor (see Appendix).

The main factor in PALS is Learner-Centered Activities. This factor is made up of 12 of the negative items in the instrument. These items relate to evaluation by formal tests and a comparison of students to outside standards. Those who support a teacher-centered mode favor formal testing over informal evaluation techniques and rely heavily on standardized tests. They encourage students to accept middle-class values. They exercise control of the classroom by assigning quiet deskwork, by using disciplinary action when needed, and by determining the educational objectives for each student. They tend to practice one basic teaching method and support the conviction that most adults have a similar style of learning. However, those who support the collaborative mode reject these teacher-centered behaviors. Their opposition to these items implies that they practice behaviors which allow initiating action by the student and which encourage students to take responsibility for their own learning. The classroom focus is then upon the learner and learner-centered activities.

Factor 2 is Personalizing Instruction. This factor contains six positive items and three negative items. Teachers who score high on this factor do a variety of things that personalize learning to meet the unique needs of each student. Objectives are based on individual motives and abilities. Instruction is self-paced. Various methods, materials, and assignments are utilized. Lecturing is viewed as a poor method for presenting subject material to the adult learner. Cooperation rather than competition is encouraged.

Factor 3 is Relating to Experience and consists of six positive items. Teachers who support this factor plan learning activities that take into account their student's prior experiences and encourage students to relate their new learning to experiences. To make learning relevant, learning episodes are organized according to the problems that the students encounter in everyday living. However, this focus is not just on coping with current problems or accepting the values of others. Instead, students are encouraged to ask basic questions about the nature of their society. When it is screened through experience, such consciousness-raising questioning can foster a student's growth from dependence on others to greater independence.

Factor 4 is made up of four positive items related to Assessing Student Needs. For those teachers who score high in this area, treating a student as an adult is finding out what each student wants and needs to know. This is accomplished through a heavy reliance on individual conferences and informal counseling. Existing gaps between a student's goals and the present levels of performance are diagnosed. Then students are assisted in developing short-range as well as long-range objectives.

Factor 5 is Climate Building, and it also contains four positive items. Knowles (1970) lists setting a friendly and informal climate as the first step in his andragogical model (p. 41). Dialogue and interaction with other students are encouraged. Periodic breaks are taken. Barriers are eliminated by utilizing the numerous competencies that adults already possess as building blocks for educational objectives. Risk taking is encouraged, and errors are accepted as a natural part of the learning process. Such

an environment is a microcosm of the total society. In it learners can experiment and explore elements related to their self-concept, practice problem-solving skills, and develop interpersonal skills. Failures serve as a feedback device to direct future positive learning.

The four positive items in Factor 6 relate to Participation in the Learning Process. While Factor 1 focuses on the broad location of authority within the classroom, this factor specifically addresses the amount of involvement of the student in determining the nature and evaluation of the content material. Those who score high in this area have the students identify the problems that they wish to solve and allow the students to participate in making decisions about the topics that will be covered in class. Encouraging an adult-to-adult relationship between teacher and students, they also involve the students in developing the criteria for evaluating classroom performance.

Factor 7 contains five negative items which do not foster Flexibility for Personal Development. Those who oppose the collaborative mode view themselves as providers of knowledge rather than facilitators. They determine the objectives for the students at the beginning of the program and stick to them regardless of the idiosyncrasies that may arise from divergent student needs or situations. A well-disciplined classroom is viewed as a stimulus for learning. Discussions of controversial subjects that involve value judgements or of issues that relate to a student's self-concept are avoided. Supporters of the collaborative mode reject this rigidity and lack of sensitivity to the individual. They view personal fulfillment as a central aim of education. To accomplish this, flexibility is maintained by adjusting the classroom environment and curricular content to meet the changing needs of the students, and issues that relate to values are addressed in order to stimulate understanding and future personal growth.

Conclusion

Through an analysis of these seven factors, a teacher can gain a clearer understanding of his/her classroom behavior. This analysis should also reveal that the philosophical roots of the collaborative mode lie in humanism and progressivism. Humanism assumes that man is naturally good, that the potential for individual growth is unlimited, that behavior is the result of personal perceptions, and that each individual has a unique self. Human beings are proactive. They can influence and take responsibility for their actions. (Elias & Merriam, 1980, pp. 115-121). By utilizing trust, adult educators can help students move in the direction of freedom and dignity. Progressivism views education as having a dual function. In addition to promoting individual growth, its aim is to maintain and/or promote the good of society (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 50). Democracy, freedom, experience, responsibility, and participation are key words for progressives. Each of the titles of the seven factors indicates elements that operationalize these philosophies.

Actions antithetical to the collaborative mode are compatible with the behaviorist position that humans are controlled by their environment, the conditions of which can be studied, specified and manipulated. An individual's behavior is determined by the events experienced in an objective environment (Elias & Merriam, 1980, p. 83). In this teacher-centered view, the instructor has a responsibility for determining and reinforcing the fundamental values necessary for the survival of the individual and the society (p. 86). Although the students play an active role, the teacher is a "contingency manager, an environmental controller, or behavioral engineer who plans in detail the conditions necessary to bring about desired behavior" (p. 88). The teacher's actions which are not congruent with the factor titles can be associated with this philosophy.

The assumptions of humanism and progressivism underpinning the collaborative mode are obviously different from those of behaviorism which can be associated with the non-collaborative mode. The assumptions within each school are related and are supportive of each other. Collectively they form a synergistic whole which is referred to as a philosophy. When this philosophy serves as a guide, the numerous classroom behaviors of the teacher are consistent. Although these behaviors may vary somewhat due to the teacher's degree of commitment to the philosophy, to the situation, or to institutional restraints, any variance should be within a small range. When the teaching behaviors vary beyond this range, it is likely that the teacher does not have a firm commitment to a definitive teaching style. This indicates a lack of an appreciation of the correlation of the assumptions within a basic approach to teaching and thereby leads to a violation of some of these assumptions. Worse yet, it may signal either that the teacher has no understanding of the philosophical assumptions at work in the educational process or that the teacher does not recognize the inherent contradictions in his/her teaching behaviors.

Knowles (1970) has suggested that the teacher is the most important variable influencing the nature of the learning climate (p. 41). If those entrusted with this crucial position are to function as professionals, they must be aware of what they do and why they do it. Self-assessment can be a professional development technique to accomplish this. The Principles of Adult Learning Scale offers a quick and reliable means of doing such an assessment. In addition to identifying a general teaching style, it produces scores in seven factors which operationalize the general teaching style. By analyzing these factor scores, the teacher can identify specific teaching behaviors and can take steps to learn about and make decisions about modifying inconsistent behaviors (Conti, 1984a). Although all teachers of adults may not decide to support the collaborative mode which is suggested in the literature, they will be able to adopt a personal credo which contains internally compatible assumptions and which communicates consistent patterns of teacher behavior to expectant students.

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by

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APPENDIX

PRINCIPLES OF ADULT LEARNING SCALE

Directions: The following survey contains several things that a teacher of adults might do in a classroom. You may personally find some of them desirable and find others undesirable. For each item please respond to the way you most frequently practice the action described in the item. Your choices are Always, Almost Always, Often, Seldom, Almost Never, and Never. On your answer sheet, circle 0 if you always do the event; circle number 1 if you almost always do the event; circle 2 if you often do the event; circle 3 if you seldom do the event; circle 4 if you almost never do the event; and circle 5 if you never do the event. If the item does not apply to you, circle number 5 for never.

Always	Almost Always	Often	Seldom	Almost Never	Never
0	1	2	3	4	5

1. I allow students to participate in developing the criteria for evaluating their performance in class.
2. I use disciplinary action when it is needed.
3. I allow older students more time to complete assignments when they need it.
4. I encourage students to adopt middle-class values.
5. I help students diagnose the gaps between their goals and their present level of performance.
6. I provide knowledge rather than serve as a resource person.
7. I stick to the instructional objectives that I write at the beginning of a program.
8. I participate in the informal counseling of students.
9. I use lecturing as the best method for presenting my subject material to adult students.
10. I arrange the classroom so that it is easy for students to interact.
11. I determine the educational objectives for each of my students.
12. I plan units which differ as widely as possible from my students' socioeconomic backgrounds.
13. I get a student to motivate himself-herself by confronting him/her in the presence of classmates during group discussions.
14. I plan learning episodes to take into account my students' prior experiences.
15. I allow students to participate in making decisions about the topics that will be covered in class.
16. I use one basic teaching method because I have found that most adults have a similar style of learning.
17. I use different techniques depending on the students being taught.
18. I encourage dialogue among my students.
19. I use written tests to assess the degree of academic growth rather than to indicate new directions for learning.
20. I utilize the many competencies that most adults already possess to achieve educational objectives.
21. I use what history has proven that adults need to learn as my chief criteria for planning learning episodes.

22. I accept errors as a natural part of the learning process.
23. I have individual conferences to help students identify their educational needs.
24. I let each student work at his/her own rate regardless of the amount of time it takes him/her to learn a new concept.
25. I help my students develop short-range as well as long-range objectives.
26. I maintain a well-disciplined classroom to reduce interferences to learning.
27. I avoid discussion of controversial subjects that involve value judgements.
28. I allow my students to take periodic breaks during class.
29. I use methods that foster quiet, productive deskwork.
30. I use tests as my chief method of evaluating students.
31. I plan activities that will encourage each student's growth from dependence on others to greater independence.
32. I gear my instructional objectives to match the individual abilities and needs of the students.
33. I avoid issues that relate to the student's concept of himself/herself.
34. I encourage my students to ask questions about the nature of their society.
35. I allow a student's motives for participating in continuing education to be a major determinant in the planning of learning objectives.
36. I have my students identify their own problems that need to be solved.
37. I give all students in my class the same assignment on a given topic.
38. I use materials that were originally designed for students in elementary and secondary schools.
39. I organize adult learning episodes according to the problems that my students encounter in everyday life.
40. I measure a student's long term educational growth by comparing his/her total achievement in class to his/her expected performance as measured by national norms from standardized tests.
41. I encourage competition among my students.
42. I use different materials with different students.
43. I help students relate new learning to their prior experiences.
44. I teach units about problems of everyday living.

Scoring PALS

Positive Items

Items number 1, 3, 5, 8, 10, 14, 15, 17, 18, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 28, 31, 32, 34, 35, 36, 39, 42, 43 and 44 are positive items. For positive items, the following values are assigned:

Always = 5, Almost Always = 4, Often = 3, Seldom = 2, Almost Never = 1, and Never = 0.

Negative Items

Items number 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 16, 19, 21, 26, 27, 29, 30, 33, 38, 40 and 41 are negative items. For negative items, the following values are assigned:

Always = 0, Almost Always = 1, Often = 2, Seldom = 3, Almost Never = 4, and Never = 5.

Missing Items

Omitted items are assigned a neutral value of 2.5.

Factor 1

Factor 1 contains items number 2, 4, 11, 12, 13, 16, 19, 21, 29, 30, 38 and 40.

Factor 2

Factor 2 contains items 3, 9, 17, 24, 32, 35, 37, 41 and 42.

Factor 3

Factor 3 contains items 14, 31, 34, 39, 43 and 44.

Factor 4

Factor 4 contains items 5, 8, 23 and 25.

Factor 5

Factor 5 contains items 18, 20, 22 and 28.

Factor 6

Factor 6 contains items 1, 10, 15 and 36.

Factor 7

Factor 7 contains items 6, 7, 26, 27 and 33.

Computing Scores

An individual's total score on the instrument is calculated by summing the value of the responses to all items. Factor scores are calculated by summing the value of the responses for each item in the factor.

Factor Score Values

Factor	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	8	8.3
2	31	6.8
3	21	4.9
4	14	3.6
5	16	3.0
6	13	3.5
7	13	3.9

"Self-Guided Learning and Change"

by

Dr. Allen Tough

For quite some time I have been very interested in the ways in which people learn including self-directed learning, as well as traditional learning such as classes, courses, and so on. And the more I study this, the more fascinated I become. The picture that is emerging is quite different from what we anticipated because the amount of learning that adults are engaged in is just stupendous. For example, I looked at the population of Albuquerque and did some calculations, and I estimate that in one week the men and women in Albuquerque spend one and a half million hours at major efforts to learn. These are highly deliberate, highly intentional, planned efforts to learn something--some knowledge or some skills. The men and women just in Albuquerque alone, never mind the rest of the state or the rest of the country, just men and women in Albuquerque, spend one and a half million hours a week at this activity. That is just incredible. It is very different from the stereotypes that most of us have of adults. Most of us think that they work, stop in for a beer on the way home, and watch TV and that's it. But when we sit down with them for an hour and a half and really listen to them and probe and repeat the question and listen some more, these adults start to recall all the different things they have been trying to learn in the last few months. When we add this up, it adds up to an incredible number of hours and an enormous amount of learning.

Before continuing with our findings some background information is necessary. We began our research in Toronto, Canada, a thriving North American city of about 2 million people, and the first study there involved a very small number of people. From these people we began to get amazing results. We started with homemakers who had at least one preschool child. Then we interviewed factory workers and municipal politicians and so on. It didn't seem to matter which group we interviewed because we got rather similar results. Well, since then, this line of research has been picked up by various thesis students and faculty members all across this country and in four other countries, and the same picture emerges everywhere. That is one of the fascinating things. In fact, one of my own best experiences was while interviewing in West Africa; and even though everything looks different and feels different there, when people started telling me about their efforts to learn, they were saying the same kinds of things that people here were saying. So it does seem to be a universal phenomenon--at least among all the groups we have interviewed.

What we asked people to do was basically very simple. We asked them to tell us about the things they have been trying to learn in the last year. These must be highly deliberate, highly intentional efforts to learn, and the learners must have a clear idea of what they are trying to learn. We want only major efforts, so we put a seven-hour minimum on it. We don't have to use that very often because the typical learning effort is around 100 hours. People add up all the time they spent reading, asking people questions, reflecting, practicing, etc., and it adds up to about 100 hours on the average. So these are major efforts; they are not brief encounters such as looking a word up in the dictionary. Even though the interview is conceptually simple, that is, we are just asking what are the things that they have been trying to learn in the last 12 months, the way we go about it is in a scientific manner. It involves much probing. We have two detailed sheets of ideas and activities to help people remember what they have been

learning (see Figure 2). And when they do start to remember, we make sure that learning something new was their major motivation. Once this is clear, we try to get fairly accurate numbers as to the hours these people spend learning. So it is on one level a simple kind of interview and on another level it involves some kind of sophistication because we try to get fairly accurate numbers. The research was not confined to any one class or occupation, but rather we interviewed people from all walks of life. In fact, not too long ago there was a national survey done by Pat Penland, a library school professor. This survey was done within the U.S. and consisted of 1,501 persons in all parts of the country--persons chosen through random sampling methods. Again, he got the same picture that all the other people got with smaller studies and different places and groups. So it seems to apply to people in all walks of life, all parts of this country, and several other countries as well.

Now what is the basic picture? Well, one of the most startling things is the amount of learning. As I mentioned, the people in Albuquerque alone, just looking at the adults and not even looking at the kids, comprise a million and a half hours of learning a week. If you look at the typical person, he/she spends about 10 hours a week at these highly deliberate efforts to learn. When we asked the average person to distinguish the different areas and knowledge skills he/she is trying to learn, we found that he/she learns in five distinct areas in any given year. In other words, the person is doing five unrelated learning projects a year. These projects might be related to child raising, or one or two might be connected with the person's job, one might be understanding current events or understanding American history, another might be learning how to do a major repair job or electrical wiring job in the house. The typical learning effort is 100 hours; there are five of these a year--500 hours per person, which works out to about 10 hours a week. Next time you're on a bus or walking down the street, think about that. See if you can change your stereotype. Say to yourself that most of these people, those 9 out of 10, have done at least one of these major learning efforts; and, in fact, the average person is spending about 10 hours a week at this. I have to keep reminding myself when I am in the subway in Toronto or when I am walking down the street or even facing a class that people are doing all kinds of learning, not just in my class, but in the rest of their life as well.

Not only is the amount of learning surprising, but it is also surprising to note how many adults participate in learning projects. We find that about 90 percent of all adults are doing at least one major learning effort a year and that they are doing five of these and spending about 500 hours at it. The other kind of finding comes up when we ask people the following question. "Who decided from one learning session to the next what to learn and how to go about it?" That's where we find the reason that the picture we come up with is quite different from the picture most people have found before. I use the iceberg analogy for that. This iceberg represents all adult learning efforts, all of the adults' efforts to learn any kind of knowledge and skills during a given year. Like a real iceberg, there is only a tiny tip of it showing above the surface of the ocean. As you know, the bulk of an iceberg is invisible, hidden below the surface of the ocean. When we look at adult learning, the highly visible tip of the iceberg is the part of adult learning that is professionally planned. There is a teacher or somebody who is designated or paid to plan and guide the learning. This is a situation we are all familiar with. I started out as a high school teacher and then got into adult education because my department head asked me to teach a night school class. So certainly my beginning in adult learning was people sitting in a classroom. I was the teacher, and it was my job. I was paid to plan that course and to help them with their learning. That's what we are all used to, partly because that's the way we learned as kids. So that when we then think about adult learning, we tend to think about people in a room with seats, clipboards, notebook, and somebody talking, lecturing, or guiding their learning. Some of this also goes in a one-to-one situation, that can be professionally planned, too. You go to a guidance school instructor, a tennis pro, a golf pro, and

learn in a one-to-one situation or maybe two of you learn from a pro. You can also learn from a series of television programs or a set of language records. I lump all of that into this top category, the professionally planned category. I and most people assumed that was adult learning, that was really all there was to it. However, once we started doing these intensive one and a half hour interviews, we began to get below the surface and began to get at the invisible, the part of adult learning that people haven't looked at or noticed before. What we have found is that 80 percent is below the surface, the invisible kind is largely self-planned (see Figure 2). You will see that 20 percent at the top comprise the professionally planned learning, 73 percent represent self guided learning, and the one other category we designated is peer-guided learning, such as learning from friends, neighbors, relatives, people who are the same level, in the sense that they are not paid to be the teacher, made up 7% of the learning. Much of this type of learning goes on in groups or in a one-to-one situation. You can get a relative to teach you how to drive a car, you don't have to go to a professional. You can get a friend to teach you tennis, you don't have to go to a tennis pro. The general picture is that four out of five learning efforts are guided by the learner or by a friend or relative or peer and about one out of five is guided by professionals. I earn my living as a teacher, and I don't want the professionally guided to wither away, or anything like that; but I do keep reminding myself that I am only involved with a small portion of the learning with the people in my classes, and that much of their learning is going to go on outside my classes, and that they are going to be guiding it. This is the total picture of adult learning, not just what goes on inside my classroom.

One other point that needs mentioning is motivation (see Figure 3). It is not surprising that the bulk of adult learning is generally for practical purposes. Adults want to raise their kids, do a job, they want to build something, fix something. So they really have an action goal or some action outcome that they want, and they engage in a learning effort in order to produce that action outcome. Even though practical application is the major motivational force, there is a very significant portion of adult learning that is motivated because of curiosity, because of puzzlement, because people are fascinated about something. They plunge into it largely for that reason. Then we asked people and we really pushed on this question, "Was any of your learning for credit of some kind, for example, for a driver's license, diploma, degree, or any other piece of paper like that?" We still only found that about 5 percent of all adult learning is for credit, for some sort of piece of paper--semi-public recognition. Ninety-five percent of all adult learning is motivated by other things, by things other than credit or a piece of paper. Again, I earn my living teaching in a credit situation. So I think it is very important. Again, I have to keep reminding myself that I am involved in only 5 percent of adult learning in that situation. The other 95 percent is going on without any kind of certification or credit.

Now that I have presented a rather new way of viewing adult learners, the next consideration is how can educators modify their methodology. I will give you my five steps towards this modification (see Figure 4). But I hope you will take my steps just as a stimulus, as something to get you started in your own thinking; the important thing is for you to think about the people you are dealing with--the learners, the staff, the students, whoever it is and to think through for yourself what you might do differently as a result of this picture. I am assuming that you are now accepting the picture more or less. You might quarrel with the exact numbers. But you are thinking that maybe there is something in this. Maybe this really is what adult learning is like. Now think through what you can do as a result of that.

The first step is probably a little different than the kind of step you would expect, because it deals with your attitude, your perception of yourself as a person who is interested in fostering, facilitating learning. What I find has happened to me is, instead of just seeing myself as an instructor in a graduate school helping graduate

students learn about a particular field, I now have a wider perception of how I fit into the world. So I now see myself as having a real kinship with librarians, a real kinship with people in the "Y," a real kinship with people who are staff developers. I am not just seeing myself in a narrow sense but as a part of a much broader enterprise, and that broader enterprise is held together by this goal of trying to foster and facilitate adult learning.

The second step is much more specific than the first. Basically this step provides more options, more freedom for people; it tries to give them more things to choose from; and it gives them some help in making those choices. Often it is helpful to ask yourself the following questions to see if these options are available. Could you provide some other methods? Are you just providing one method in your own situation? If so, why? Does that make sense or are there some other methods? Could you get tapes, books, groups, or whatever? Also, look at the range of subject matter that you offer. Could you broaden it? Could you give more choices of what to learn?

The next point, that just below that one, is that it is not enough just to give people more resources, you also have to help them find out about those resources. And my assessment of adult learning in America today is that we are not stuck for resources, but a lot of people just don't know about those resources. People don't know what is available in their own city or community and, therefore, they are not using those resources. So part of our effort should be to help people become more aware of what is available and this can be done through the educational information centers, reference librarians, advertisements, brochures, and just about anything that helps people become aware of what is available. I like the idea of an open house or introductory lectures. I think many of you at your institution should consider something like that--some kind of opportunity for people to come and briefly experience what your agency offers. One example is our local YMCA; it has an open house every semester and people can come in and meet the instructors and listen to them for a very short talk on what their course is about, and then they can make up their mind and register on the spot if they want to or mail it in. So that instead of putting down their money on the basis of one paragraph in the brochure, they have the chance to see the instructors, get some sense of how they react to that person and get a more detailed notion of what that course is going to be about. That is a very simple thing. Or if you are in a credit setting where students are around much of the time, you could have introductory lectures for the different courses. Instead of students having to go with the first session of a course and then decide whether to drop it, you can have introductory lectures at some other time of the year where students can come and get an idea of how they react to the faculty member of that particular course. These are very simple ideas, yet they make people aware of what is available, and they help them make good choices.

I guess the general idea I am promoting within this second step is a move away from, "We know best, we are on the pedestal, we will do all the planning and decision making," and a move toward fitting our educational programs into the process people are already going through. This is a fascinating thing. That is what happened in my own teaching approach. I listened to people telling me about all these things that they had been learning quite successfully on their own and with friends. I began to examine my own assumptions as an instructor. Why was I still making all the decisions and doing all the planning if they were quite capable of doing this planning in any other situation other than my class? I began to realize that this doesn't make any sense. I have just been brainwashed by society, not by any particular groups, to buy into all of these assumptions. Because I am paid to be the instructor, I therefore have all the control and do all the planning. So I tried to break out of that and move much more toward students retaining the control over their learning. I think Malcolm Knowles, in his book Self-Directed Learning, is talking about that. Jeannie Griffin, who is a faculty member at our institution, is

doing this kind of thing in her teaching. Others are as well. I think we are all breaking out in different ways. I don't think we are moving toward any standard approach. Where we are united is a moving away from a teacher-controlled/teacher-centered situation. Each of you who are in a situation where you are a teacher working with groups might consider how you could move away a little bit anyway from being the one who makes most of the decisions. The easiest thing to free up is how people learn. So maybe you would give them some options of how to learn in just a part of your course. The scarier thing is to give them freedom in what to learn. As you gain confidence and maybe two or three of you are doing this together, you might gain the courage to let students start making more choices about what they learn. You can start off very simply. Give them an assignment--do this, this, this, or this--thereby giving them four choices already. Your fifth choice might be, "or any other topic with the consent of the instructor." So, that for the student who wants to do a quite different sort of topic, you can give that student the option of writing a proposal and coming to you and saying, "Can I do this instead of the other four assignments?" That is not too threatening to you or to the system, you can't get fired for that. But it does give students more choices.

I think what often happens to instructors or administrators is that they say, "Okay, it's too big; you can't change." I urge people to make very small changes, start in the simplest way you can. Don't try to revolutionize your whole department or your whole college but just start with a very small segment. One course, one portion of a course, try to move away from teacher control in a very small situation. One of the ways this is being done is with learning contracts. I just want to share with you the two sides of my feelings about learning contracts. In one way, I am very positive about them because I think they are one form of breaking away from a whole group of learning the same thing in a lock step fashion. I do have one problem with learning contracts and that is that sometimes people feel locked into them. When I talked with Malcolm Knowles about this, his response was that they are always negotiable, people as they change their minds on the way through can always go to the instructor and negotiate a change. I think that is good. I am glad that feature is there. My feeling though is that people feel locked in, maybe it is needless but they still feel locked in. The example "Paths Followed in One Learning Project" shows that the learning process is very complex (see Figure 5). This diagram came from one of my graduate students when he decided to draw a sketch of one of his learning efforts. This learning effort happened to be an individual reading course that he was doing with me. He started off interested in self-planned learning and that led into four different directions and a couple of those paths ended there, and that was okay. That path that went through individual perception becomes very complex. You will notice at the bottom, two rectangles have arrows pointing down. Which I gather breaks all the rules of flow charts. At any rate, the reason for that is that the student then went on to develop a thesis proposal based on those two squares, those two interests. So, that in a sense of learning projects, it didn't end when the reading course ended. I think it is very interesting to look at that diagram and one of the obvious features is that it is not a nice, neat linear path. It doesn't just flow on A, B, C, D, to E. It sort of meanders and hops, skips, and jumps all over the place. The other thing, though, is that there is no way the student could have sat down at the beginning and planned that entire learning project. It is too complex. Nobody can plan something that complex; even more important, though, the student as he learned kept changing his mind about what direction to go to next. It seems to me that is the essence of much adult learning, that we start off learning about one facet of the thing and after you have learned that you are different and you are going to have different questions, you are going to see different options about where to go next and so the next step you take may be quite different from one you would have predicted when you started. And that keeps happening over and over. I just worry that a learning contract eliminates much of this function, and that it deals only with the starting point and does not allow the freedom to break out in all of those directions toward the ending point.

What I do with my own individual reading courses and in fact in my own classroom courses as well is to urge people not to plan more than a week or two ahead. I just say figure out what you want to learn this week, what do you want to read next, what direction do you want to go in this week or the next two weeks and then sit back and reassess what you want to do next. That seems to work fairly well. Of course, what happens with this is if you are an instructor, you are going to be consulted at various stages during that thing. You don't just settle it all at the beginning, and then it goes by itself. The student may come to you many times and ask for help in clarifying his goals, or ask for a book or a resource on a particular topic, whatever his needs are. Some people think that self-planned learning is easier for an instructor to facilitate. I think that just the opposite is true. I think it can be very time consuming, but very rewarding.

The third suggestion I made is a much more specific suggestion. This is a very specific kind of help that I think we should try to give people. It is how we can help people set their learning goals. I suggest three ways that this can be done. One is through printed materials, books, and that sort of thing. I suggest collecting any books that are available and would help people set learning goals and would help them look at their own learning. It is very simple, it might cost a hundred dollars to buy those books. In my more vehement moments, I said every community college, every adult evening program, in fact every instructor should have some of those basic books on display so that not only do you help people learn subject matter but you also encourage them to look at their own learning, where they are going and some of the options. I have put together a list of the most useful books that I have come across, and I would urge you to consider buying some of those books for the learners at your institution (see Figure 6). Put them in a prominent place in your library, in your classroom. I often take books to my classroom and spread them out on a table just to encourage people to see what is available. I will either lend them copies or encourage them to jot down the title and author. It is amazing how many people will be attracted to 10 or 15 books spread out on a table. They will go over before session, after session, or at a coffee break and browse at those and jot down one or two they are going to look at. These are all useful books but one in particular, The Lifelong Learner by Ron Gross, I recommend strongly. It captures the freedom, resources, and methods of adult learning much better than any other book I have seen. Ron is basically a journalist although he is also an educator, and he has written various books on high school. He just got interested in people learning on their own--he calls them free learners--and has written this incredible book. It was written for the adult learner which is very unusual to write books about learning for the adult learner. I think it is also a very useful book for professionals.

A second way to help people with their learning goals is to talk with them--at coffee breaks, before your class, whenever you are in touch with the learner. Or if you are a staff developer or a supervisor, you might help your staff look at their own learning. Once people look at what they are already learning that is job related, they will make better choices, more thoughtful decisions about where to go next with their own learning. My stance is that everyone is trying to learn to become better at their job. All I am doing is helping them to make better choices around them.

The third way to help people set their learning goals is in a group. For example, I run workshops occasionally for the general public on choosing your learning path. I do this at the "Y." I used to do it at a growth center in a university. People come and we just spend a day, even less, looking at them and their interests and needs, and looking at some of the options available in this particular city and toward the end of the session they start to make some choices. They start to list some of the options for things they might learn next, some of the directions in which they might go and then they try to set priorities, just narrow it down to the one or two things that would be

beneficial for them. It is a very simple workshop format. I am amazed that very few institutions are offering this sort of thing. We let people come and learn, but we do not give them a chance to come and reflect on their learning and reflect on where they might go next in their learning.

The last step involves self-examination--looking at how you can become a more effective helper. One way to do this is to study your own learning habits. What got me started in this whole thing in the first place was analyzing my own learning of French. I learned French in high school in Ontario; but then had to relearn it and learn some more in order to pass an exam. That's the first time Cyril Houle, my major professor, gave me this assignment of examining the learning steps, and I found sure enough I had gone through all those learning steps. I had set my objectives, and how many words I had to learn in order to pass the exam. In Toronto we have a lot of people coming in from other countries, one of the fascinating things is that they will not only go to a classroom to learn how to speak English; but they will use television and radio in order to learn. In a supermarket they will look at packages and try to translate the different labels. They will deliberately choose people to talk to who will help them learn English. It seems to be a highly deliberate path that they follow to use all kinds of resources in the environment in order to learn to speak the language. Some people may want to use a preplanned package rather than using a teacher. I think we need to do more and more research on the 80 percent of adult learning because this field has been neglected. I would never say self-planned learning is better or more important than any other kind, but it is neglected until it has been studied. The final answer I have for this question, "What you can do," is to look at yourself as a helper and maybe think of ways you can improve as a helper. One of the fascinating things about people trying to learn in a self-guided way is that they get an enormous amount of help from friends, people at work, relatives, and neighbors. They get advice, encouragement, information. The average number of people is about 10 percent for learning one particular thing. You know people are learning about five different things each year. So they are getting help from about 55 people. Some of those are going to be the same people. So you can help by being one of these people.

Figure 1.

CAN YOU RECALL ANY LEARNING EFFORTS concerning children, ecology, nature, gardening, personal finances, a major purchase, home repair or improvement, current events, a sport or game, sewing, cooking, a hobby or craft, an area of reading, science, health, fitness, history, a nation to be visited, psychology, human relationships, self-insight, groups, a personal problem, careers and jobs, various responsibilities at work, music, art, religion, moral values, spiritual matters, society's problems, marriage and family relationships, household budgets, communication, empathy, time management, a new language, some project at home or work, a decision, a long-term interest, or your community?

Figure 2.

DAY BY DAY, WHO GUIDES THE LEARNING PROJECTS?

PROFESSIONALLY guided in a group (10%) or one-to-one (7%)

PRE-PROGRAMMED sequence provided by book, P.I., TV or radio series, tapes

SELF-guided

PEER-guided in a group (4%) or one-to-one (3%)

Figure 3.

WHAT MOTIVATES ADULT LEARNING?

75%: some anticipated use of the knowledge and skill.

20%: curiosity; puzzlement; wanting to possess the knowledge.

5%: credit toward a certificate, degree, driver's license, etc.

Figure 4.

WHAT YOU CAN DO

1. Become committed to fostering the entire range of major learning efforts. Feel a kinship with the total helping enterprise devoted to facilitating the person's efforts to learn and grow. Feel part of an even wider enterprise: to foster the humane, loving, liberating, growth-enhancing, creative elements in our society.

2. In your entire program or institution, or at least in your own work with learners, be sure they have plenty of freedom and options.

   --Provide a variety of opportunities and resources for learning and personal growth.
   --Be sure people can get plenty of information about these.
   --Encourage autonomous groups of peers (self-help groups) to form around a common interest or need.
   --As much as possible, give the learners a wide choice of how and what to learn.
   --Simultaneously be sure they can get enough help.
   --Browse through Chapter 14 in The Adult's Learning Projects.
   --Shift away from "we know best," from emphasis on credit or grades, from coercion or forced attendance, from a high degree of control by the instructor.

3. Through printed materials or in one-to-one conversations or in a group, experiment with helping learners to:

   --thoughtfully choose their learning goals (after reflecting on their life goals, seeking feedback on their performance, clarifying needs and interests, and examining their current learning patterns);
   --become aware of the vast panorama of available opportunities and methods (including self-guided and peer-guided), and choose the most appropriate strategy;
   --become competent at making choices and plans more effectively and independently next time.

4. Develop or integrate new knowledge about all this, or encourage others to do so. Eventually this increased understanding will lead to better help and resources for the entire range of intentional human learning.

5. Try to improve as a learning consultant and helper. For example, you could read about learning projects, study your own learning, read about being an effective helper, seek constructive feedback, try to listen better, try to be more loving and spontaneous and authentic, attend a personal growth group.

Figure 5

THE PATHS FOLLOWED IN ONE LEARNING PROJECT

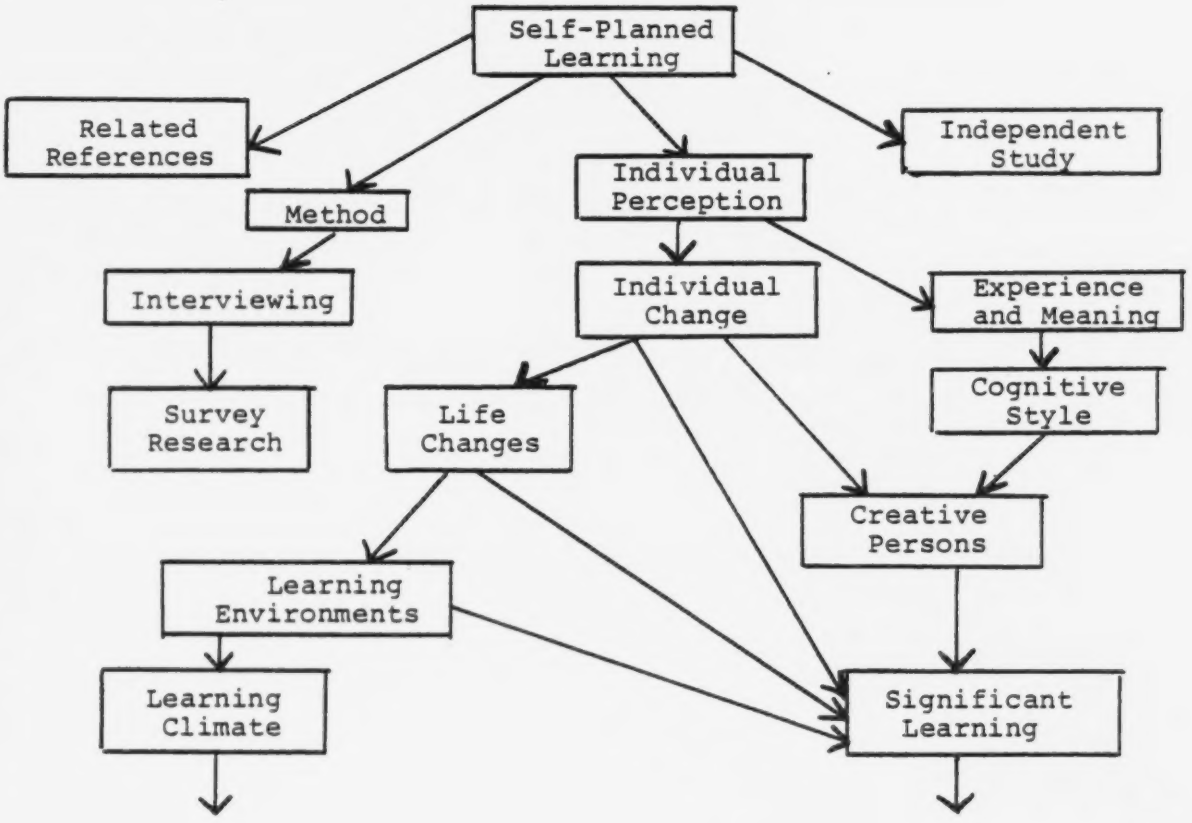

Figure 6.

USEFUL BOOKS FOR CHOOSING AND GUIDING ONE'S LEARNING

Richard Bolles. What Color Is Your Parachute?
Raymond Corsini. Current Psychotherapies.
John Coyne & Tom Hebert. This Way Out.
Ann Faraday. The Dream Game.
George A. Ford & G. L. Lippitt. Planning Your Future.
Stanislav Grof. Realms of the Human Unconscious.
Ronald Gross. The Lifelong Learner.
Milton Hahn. Planning Ahead After 40.
Nathaniel Lande. Mindstyles, Lifestyles.
J. W. Loughary & T. M. Ripley. Career and Life Planning Guide.
Michael Mahoney & C. Thoresen. Self-control: Power to the Person.
Claudio Naranjo. The One Quest. (Wildwood)
Nena & George O'Neill. Shifting Gears.
Clara C. Park & L. N. Shapiro. You Are Not Alone.
Cris Popenoe. Books for Inner Development.
C. R. Rogers. Carl Rogers on Personal Power.
Nelle T. Scholz. How to Decide: A Guide for Women.
Sidney B. Simon. Meeting Yourself Halfway.
John O. Stevens. Awareness.
Allen Tough. The Adult's Learning Projects.

Figure 7. Summary

WHAT DID WE ASK PEOPLE ABOUT?

About all their major learning efforts or "learning projects" during the 12 months before the interview. A learning project is a highly deliberate effort to gain and retain certain definite knowledge, skill, etc. To meet our criteria, a person had to identify a series of learning sessions or episodes in which his or her primary intention was to learn something--and these had to add up to at least 7 hours.

WHO WAS INTERVIEWED?

Persons in all walks of life. Young adults, retired adults, all ages in between, and even some youth (ages 10 and 16). In Canada, Ghana, Jamaica, New Zealand, and the United States.

WHAT DID WE FIND? (regarding a 12-month period)

90% of all adults conduct at least one major learning effort. The middle or average learner conducts 5 distinct projects. He or she spends an average of 100 hours per learning effort, which is a total of 500 hours a year.

A Suggested Reading List

by

Allen Tough

SECTION 1: BOOKS THAT ARE BROAD GAUGE OR ESPECIALLY ON TARGET

Ronald Gross. The Lifelong Learner. NY: Simon and Schuster, 1977. An outstanding printed tool for the adult learner.

James M. Heffernan et al. Educational Brokering: New Services for Adult Learners. Syracuse: National Center for Educational Brokering, 1976.

Cyril O. Houle. The Inquiring Mind: A Study of the Adult Who Continues to Learn. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1963. An insightful thinker studied 22 adults who were conspicuously engaged in education.

Diana J. Ironside and Dorene E. Jacobs. Trends In Counseling and Information Services for the Adult Learner. Toronto: OISE, 1977.

Malcolm S. Knowles. Self-Directed Learning: A Guide for Learners and Teachers. NY: Association Press, 1975.

George Robert Lewis. A Comparative Study of Learning Networks in the United States. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1978.

Cressy McCatty. Patterns of Learning Projects Among Professional Men. Doctoral dissertation, OISE, University of Toronto, 1973.

Anne S. Mavor et al. Final Report: The Role of the Public Libraries in Adult Independent Learning. NY: College Entrance Examination Board, 1976. Note especially Vol. I (Part 1), pp. 1-6, 76-78, 85-94.

Patrick R. Penland. Individual Self-Planned Learning in America. Final report of project 475AH60058 under grant no. G007603327. U.S. Office of Education, Office of Libraries and Learning Resources. Unpublished manuscript, Graduate School of Library and Information Sciences, University of Pittsburgh, 1977.

Richard E. Peterson et al. Toward Lifelong Learning in America: A Sourcebook for Planners. Berkeley: Educational Testing Service, 1978. Note especially Peterson's overview chapter "Sources of Education and Learning in the USA."

Carl R. Rogers. Carl Rogers on Personal Power: Inner Strength and Its Revolutionary Impact. NY: Delacorte, 1977.

Robert M. Smith. Learning How to Learn in Adult Education. (Information Series No. 10) DeKalb, Illinois: ERIC Clearinghouse in Career Education, 1976. Also available as ERIC document ED 132 245.

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Allen Tough. The Adult's Learning Projects: A Fresh Approach to Theory and Practice in Adult Learning. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Allen Tough. Major Learning Efforts: Recent Research and Future Directions. Unpublished paper. Also in Adult Education, XXVIII (4), Summer 1978.

Warren L. Ziegler. The Future of Adult Education and Learning in the United States. (Final report under project grant no. OEG-0-73-5232, prepared for U.S. Office of Education, Division of Adult Education.) Syracuse: Education Policy Research Center, Syracuse Research Corporation, 1977.

SECTION 2: PARTICULAR POPULATIONS AND FOCI USEFUL FOR FOLLOWING SOME SPECIFIC INTEREST

Thomas D. Allerton. Selected Characteristics of the Learning Projects Pursued by Parish Ministers in the Louisville Metropolitan Area (Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, 1974). Dissertation Abstracts International 1975, 35, 6422A. (University Microfilms No. 75-8084)

Frank B. Benson, Jr. Learning Projects of Selected Administrators in Tennessee Colleges and Universities (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Tennessee, 1974). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1975, 35, 4958A. (University Microfilms No. 75-3572)

Gerald Caplan and Marie Killilea (eds.). Support Systems and Mutual Help. NY: Grune and Stratton, 1976. Note particularly Chapter 2 Killilea's review of the literature on mutual help organizations.

Robert R. Carkhuff and Bernard G. Berelson. Beyond Counseling and Therapy. NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Arthur Combs et al. Helping Relationships: Basic Concepts for the Helping Professions. NY: Allyn & Bacon, 1971.

Commission on Non-Traditional Study. Diversity by Design. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973.

Patricia M. Coolican. The Learning Styles of Mothers of Young Children. (Doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, 1973) Dissertation Abstracts International, 1974, 35, 783A-784A. (University Microfilms No. 74-17, 569)

Patricia M. Coolican. Self-Planned Learning: Implications for the Future of Adult Education. (Technical Report No. 74-507) Syracuse: Educational Policy Research Center, Syracuse University Research Corporation, 1974. ERIC document ED 095 254.

Edgar Faure et al. Learning To Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow. Toronto: UNESCO/OISE, 1972.

Roger Hiemstra. The Older Adult and Learning. Lincoln: Department of Adult and Continuing Education, University of Nebraska, 1975. Also available as ERIC document ED 117 371.

Cyril O. Houle. The External Degree. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973.

Cyril O. Houle. The Public Library's Role in Non-traditional Study. Washington: Division of Library Programs, US Office of Education, 1974. Also available as ERIC document No. ED 098 993.

Ivan Illich et al. After Deschooling, What? NY: Harper and Row, 1973.

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"Non-Traditional Adult Learning"

by

Dr. R. Andrew Johnson

Before I focus on my topic, "Non-Traditional Adult Learning," let me say something about myself as a way of illustrating an aspect of adult non-traditional learning. I did my undergraduate work at the University of Oklahoma and then took an extended post-baccalaureate trip into Southeast Asia with the United States Navy as a naval officer. After that, I returned to the continental United States and did graduate work at the University of California, Berkeley, in political science with my main emphasis in political thought. Upon finishing my graduate work, I took a job as professor of government at the University of San Francisco which is a Jesuit institution with a tradition in the humanities and the sciences. It also has five other professional schools--Nursing, Business, Law, Education, and the School of Continuing Education. After a role as a student for five years at the University of San Francisco as a traditional professor in a traditional discipline, I could see what was going to be happening in the arts and the humanities in the 70's and 80's, and I decided that it would be fruitful for me to explore other avenues of employment and career development. I applied for a grant in non-traditional learning through the organization that I work for now, the Council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning or CAEL as I refer to during the course of my talk and about which I'll say more later. When I wrote my resume to demonstrate my concern for learning and education as opposed to political science, I discovered that in those ten years of teaching I had been at least as much interested in the process of learning and teaching as I was in the content of political science and political thought. The University of San Francisco in 1974 decided to take seriously its motto "For the University and the City" and extend its educational opportunities into the larger city and eventually into the state of California. I was one of two people who started the pilot program in 1974. It has grown from 31 students who graduated from the first pilot group to over 1,550 students a year and accounts for about 25 percent of the University's revenue. Through my work at the University of San Francisco, I became engaged in a larger national scene in experiential learning and helped to establish programs at other universities. Hence, I became more actively involved in CAEL. I also became more and more interested in adults as students. I also became more and more consciously interested in how people learn, and I became more and more interested in institutional change and the future of higher education as the baby boom pushed its way through and the traditional student body declined and universities sought more enrollment among the older and typically underserved groups of people. From those interests, I am now actively engaged on the national scene working with adult non-traditional education--specifically that which fosters ways of learning through experience. Now, why am I telling you these personal points?

It seems that when I reflect on these things I realize that I have never had a class in adult cognitive, affective, or moral and ego development. I've never had a class in styles of learning; I've never had a class in educational administration; nor have I had a class in organizational change. In fact, I've not had any formal education in any of the fields in which I find myself currently employed and active. I think

that the message behind this is that adults, when they have interests, when they have opportunities, when they have motivation, when they have sympathetic and empathetic peers and mentors, learn well, effectively, and are challenged to accomplish much in the time that they have and with the life structure that they have. Now, I don't think I'm unique. In fact, as I further indicate, there are more people like me in the world who seek self-directed, self-motivated study than there are people in the adult world who seek formal classroom study.

What is non-traditional? What are the factors, definition, or distinction in this term? And how do the goals between non-traditional and traditional education differ? I'd like for you to consider the following items when you look at the distinction between non-traditional and traditional. I will enumerate these and offer some examples as well as an analysis and a set of distinctions. One of the first factors we have to consider is learning style and learning modes. What styles of learning are there that enhance adults' learning? What ways can they engage in learning that is best suited to them and who they are? I would suggest that there are many different learning styles--and adults do not always possess the same one. What teaching styles are offered in non-traditional education? Are they traditional classroom lectures delivered at distant sites or are they ones that are more in tune with adult learning styles? The ages of students in non-traditional programs are often different. They generally tend to be older since we're talking about adults as non-traditional and younger folk as traditional. That leads us to another special factor. What is the age difference between students and faculty in traditional and non-traditional programs? For instance, what kind of things comes into play when a typical older authoritarian professor is not in the classroom, when there exists a smaller gap between student and faculty ages, or when a professor is younger than the average student age? Another factor to consider is location of services. Are the services offered in a main campus setting or are they offered off-campus? Are they offered very far off-campus? Another factor to consider is time. Must adults be treated in the same method as we judge on-campus time factors; that is, must their learning take place based on the Carnegie unit being one hour of contact per week for 15 weeks for one semester unit of credit? Is contact time a relevant aspect to be brought into play when talking about the difference between traditional and non-traditional programs? We have to look at the medium through which people are taught. In traditional programs, it usually is lectures and laboratories and take-home readings. In non-traditional programs, it seems from my experience that we deal more with simulations, more with compacted learning, more with television, and more with automated learning. But those need not be the differences between traditional and non-traditional programs. They just happen to speak right now about differences that do exist. Another factor to be taken into consideration is distance. Let me call it distance learning. In non-traditional programs, it more easily can be seen as decentralization. In traditional programs, it's more centralized or "on-campus" based. Often adults want a faster pace of learning. They want information more quickly and can digest it more readily. Then they are ready to move on. So the pace of learning is quite often different in adult non-traditional learning programs. And I think the most important factor to be considered is the relationship of learning to the rest of the world. In adult, non-traditional programs, how is the learning related to the rest of the world and is that relationship to the world different from that made in the traditional class among the younger students?

The result of the differences that I see based on these factors is simply that there are differences, and we need not make judgments about which is better or worse. We simply need to talk about which is more appropriate and which is less appropriate and who the audiences are and what the methods are and what the goals are. But are there different goals in traditional and non-traditional learning? I see the difference this way. The ultimate distinction is that non-traditional tends to be more student and learning oriented and traditional is more institution and teaching oriented.

However, I want to refine that even more. I want to say also that we're not going to be able to make a distinction between traditional and non-traditional because I think the issue is larger than that. The real issue is how we address what is to be learned, how we address who is to learn it, how we arrive at the realization that learning is needed, and how we address the issue of what is needed to accomplish the learning that is deemed necessary. Let me move now to the second topic that I would like to address; that is, stages of adult life.

Let's look at several stages in the adult's life. Some of them are very fixed later in life and some are fixed early in life. From the charts Chickering developed it appears that the idea of adulthood is not a monolithic or static category (Chickering, 1977). Hence, we must be ready to meet adults' places and development; that is, we need to know where they are in development and we also need to note that development may only roughly be related to age. But most of all, we have to be able to diagnose and be sensitive to age and stage development. Now that, in itself, must be related to other ideas and those are career and family and institutional needs. I think that we must respond to the pressures; also the stages of development that bear on the time, place, and load requirements of learning.

Let me shift now to the complex world of the adult and the relationship of learning to that complex world. And let me also make a proviso here. I'm going to say that I consider both adult and youth worlds to be complex. But I think they're different. And I think they're different in terms of depth and intensity. I think that adult worlds are deeper and more intense than youth worlds. That's not to say that one is better or worse; that is just an observation I want to make. What are the parts of the adult that often make learning a tenuous issue? First of all, most adults have a very intense family role--a provider, a nurturer, fix the lunch, find the right school, take the kids to the doctor, and support the spouse. There are many things that have to do with the family that impose upon learning. But also, they enhance learning. Most adults are obviously engaged in a work role. They must produce; they must provide sustenance. They do not have time, most often, to stop these things in order to learn--in order to learn in a formal educational setting. So we have to be aware of their work role. And the learning package has to be aware of how one can use both the work and the family role to enhance learning in the adult student. Most adults have, in co-relationship to their work roles, a financial situation that is limited in terms of expendable income. Time is a factor. Most adults' worlds have limited time available and the educational opportunities are usually time bound--that is, they need the degree, not four years from now, not two years from now, they needed it thirty minutes ago. Often adults' worlds are reflected by stuckness; that is, they are at a place in their career development where additional credentialing and additional learning is necessary.

Let me say a word about credentialing. Credentialing is an endemic part of our society. To try to get at it in the short run is not worthwhile; yet, in the long run, we may want to consider it. I'm not making a judgment on that issue. I just want to mention it. Another issue that we have to think about in the complex world of adults and its relationship to the learning process is the stress factor. Introducing one more major important variable or role into an adult's life, which is already time impacted and which already includes several other very demanding roles, includes stress. Faculty must understand and family members must understand that the introduction of one more factor is an important point to consider in learning. The way most adults deal with this is by shifting their patterns, or what I call juggling. They juggle. They juggle family, work, and school. I know many people who take two weeks vacation time to write their senior thesis, or to catch up on the statistics course in which they're behind. Let's take another role--leisure. Quite often this is the role that shrinks. This is the role that withers when an adult adds the learning role to all the other roles that he or she must play in life. Another role that enters into the complexity of the adult world and the activities of learning is

the accessibility of learning. Most adults are not that mobile. They can't move far. They can't pack up and go to the dorm. How many readers have, as adults, had the luxury or the privilege of packing up and going to the dorm in order to complete their course of study?

Now I would like to talk about learning and career and life change and development. It has been my experience in the educational programs I have looked at that most adults return to educational institutions because of life traumas and dramas. Whether it is appropriate or inappropriate to use education to deal with these traumas and dramas is not the point. The research that I've done shows that immediate life traumas and dramas are one of the chief contributing factors to why adults return to higher education. When we have this idea in mind, I think we need to look at the developmental patterns or the developmental stages that each adult has when he or she comes. And we need to make judgments and select procedures in our learning packages that relate to these traumas and dramas in peoples' lives. Another issue that comes about here, and which I alluded to earlier, is the issue of credentials. Many of the traumas and dramas that people face in their lives are related to the fact that they are told they can go no further until they have achieved "a baccalaureate, a master's, a certificate, or an associate's degree." As I see it, often these credentialing statements have no relationship to intelligence and competency. What non-traditional and adult learning has done in the last two decades is attempt to find ways (remember, I said that I find that in the short term a necessity) to credential which reflect both intelligence and competence. One of the things, then, that I think we need to watch for when we're talking about the relationship of education to career is how do we help potential students get what is important from education? And that, then, leads us to a very important question which is my next topic. What are the sources of learning? Is higher education an appropriate source?

As Allen Tough pointed out, we are a learning society. Let me catalog some of the sources of learning that we find in the universe of learning. Remember that Tough expanded the definition of learning and his sample was concerned with the North American continent (so this may be culture bound, but I really don't think so). Where are the places people learn and work--let's be more specific. Where do people achieve college level learning in our society? First of all, there's our higher education structure, then there are corporations, agencies, libraries, and parks and recreation departments. I think it should be noted that several major corporations have petitioned state and regional accrediting agencies to be allowed the opportunity to grant degrees which are in fact in the traditional bailiwick of higher education. One of the areas that many adults participate in is self-directed, self-motivated learning. Tough's studies show that if you look at all the categories in learning, 70% of college level learning takes place outside the walls of colleges, universities, and academies and takes place in the corporations, agencies, libraries, park and recreation departments in self-directed study. Now let's focus on self-directed study. Tough says that most adults, or a high percentage of adults, engage in a well-thought out, meaningful self-directed study at least twice during a year. Think about that in terms of how we think about students as not knowing and coming to us to know. Maybe we ought to think about students coming to us to know rather than to merely know. Come back to the 70-30 percent split. It seems to me that what has been said loud and clear from the data brought forth by Tough is that universities and colleges have not been seen in the last decade as the major place where adults go to find the education that they need. I don't want to speculate on the reasons, I'll save that for a later time. Let me take my second sub-category in this set and move on.

One of the ideas that needs discussion is recognition of learning. Do we want to talk about learning as credential or learning as competency? What is the difference

between saying that you are credentialed and that you are competent? When these two phrases are congruent, I'm happy. When they're not congruent, I'm not happy. One of the things we need to think about in terms of learning is learning contracts. How can we use the work place as a learning source for the student to interact in work and in the classroom? One of the most controversial, yet I think in the long run, one of the most successful things that will be beneficial to higher education is the recognition of credit from prior learning achieved outside of the domain of the college classroom and outside the sponsorship of the academic institution. Internships have always been a traditional way of recognizing learning; but I think we need to expand the way in which we view internships. I've touched on the sources of learning and recognition of learning to highlight the two themes in this sub-category.

Education, I think, has to recognize these points because the nature of the life of the adult is related to career change. I will discuss this further when I talk about the world of caution and quality control. Whose agenda is primary--the world of education or the world of career change? I think, all in all, in talking about the sources of learning and recognition of learning, the issue of justice, the issue of equity, and the issue of cost-effectiveness, in terms of student dollars, faculty salaries, and taxpayers' dollars must be addressed.

Let me give you some observations about students' patterns. I think we ought to recognize where students are. I think we ought to recognize and plan for where students want to go. I think we will find that the study body that we have in the 80's, as it shifts more towards adults, will be more assertive and less passive. Also, I think there's a danger in assuming that it will be more assertive and that it will be wholly capable of self-direction. Remember the life stage graph. It may not be appropriate to assign self-directed learning to somebody whose life roles have not developed, even though the age stage may be perceived as independent. But I think generally we must be more willing to recognize them. Faculty patterns: most faculty these days are attuned to and practice teaching which is pedagogically based. Pedagogy means teaching of the young. It assumes little knowledge, little connection to the world, and it assumes the students are experience-poor and can be taught by being made theory-rich. Another way of looking at faculty patterns is to talk about andragogy. Andragogy is the teaching of adults. Most adults, as they return to college, are generally theory-poor and experience-rich, quite the opposite of younger students. If they come to college expecting what a traditional student expects, then the pedagogical style of the faculty is okay. If they come to college not expecting that, then that style of faculty is not okay and will have to look at how they're doing and what they're doing. Also, I think faculty need to consider that they, in fact, may need to relate how they learn, besides how they teach, to how the students learn. One of the things we're going to face in the 80's is the fact that as student enrollment declines and shifts, faculty will face possible stagnation, loss of mobility, and conflict in the reward structures. What I'm saying is that the entry of more adults into the college environment is going to have major impact on faculty--who they are and how they do what they do. Now let me project about some more institutional changes.

I think institutions of higher education are going to need to become more client and consumer oriented. I think institutions are going to have to be prepared to deal with adults as part-time, stop-in, or stop-out students. I think institutions are going to have to face the issue of individualized study. How can they accommodate more specialized, individualized study and less large lecture and seminar study? I think colleges are going to have to face moving externally from their traditional campus base. They're going to have to move away from traditional campuses and into the community more, both meeting and drawing upon community resources. Specifically,

I think that colleges are going to have to begin making academic linkages with organizational development and career development. I think colleges and educational institutions are going to have to look at their faculty as cross-departmental appointments and cross-college appointments. They are going to have to look at their faculty as resource, and faculty are going to have to look at themselves not in the traditional segment of the department, but within the more widely broadcast view of the solution and the delivery of the goals of the institution. And lastly, I think institutions are going to have to look at competence in the long run rather than credentials. All of these categories, I would suggest to you, imply major institutional changes; and I think that over the next decade if higher education is not willing to accommodate--to think about or to work toward at least most of these changes--we're in danger of becoming a second-level institution within the social, political, and economic framework of the country. My last category, before I move on to some examples, is access to information and knowledge--the role of technology.

The traditional role of libraries and professors in higher education has been to centralize and specialize access to knowledge. I'm making a gross generalization here and I realize that there may be many varying categories and roles that the professors and libraries play. But on the whole, their role has been to centralize and specialize access to knowledge. Within the next five years, we face a technological revolution which has been thoroughly documented and well argued by Evans in The Micromillenium. We face the possibility and the opportunity of having access to most of the printed matter of the continent of North America in a package in which citizens can have access to any of the information instantaneously. Let me tell you what I mean by that. The use of the microprocessor, the home computer in relationship to video-discing, which is currently 95 percent available, puts untold information within the reach of any citizen who can go to his or her library and check out a low-cost disc, bring it home, and play it on his or her home computer, library computer, or company computer. This piece of hardware will give him or her access to all of the books in the Library of Congress. Now that's a rather hard concept to understand. But we have a technology that, within the next five years, will be able to put this capability at low cost in front of and accessible to any citizen in the United States. If we can do that, what does that do for the roles of people whose job it has been to dispense information? What does that do to attorneys as dispensers of information, what does that do to health practitioners as dispensers of information, what does that do to libraries as keepers of books, and what does that do to teachers as dispensers of information? I suggest to you that its impact is two-fold. First, it causes us to change and to rethink how those people are seen and valued in our society. And secondly, it gives us the opportunity to say we need not spend precious human resources and time in dispensing information, but we can now use that time for more creative, more facilitative, and more process-oriented endeavors. I'm not saying this to demean faculty; I'm simply saying that that's a role in the midst of change whether they like it or not over the next five years, and that will have an impact on higher education.

Let me shift to some examples in higher education of organizations and programs which I think are quite exemplary by fostering the growth of non-traditional adult learning. First of all is the organization I work for, CAEL. CAEL started out as a cooperating set of institutions in the early 70's that decided to address the question--Is the awarding of credit for experiential learning a reliable and valid endeavor? With money from the Educational Testing Service, the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education, the Lilly Endowment, and some other smaller agencies, the research question was explored. Over the next two years, research projects were carried out and were reported in the Validation Study in which we presented the evidence that established credit for experiential learning as a valid and reliable endeavor. From that stage, we approached the Kellogg Foundation for an institutional development grant which would allow us to disseminate the information that we had researched and proven to programs which were currently using experiential learning

and to universities and higher education institutions which wanted to develop programs of this sort. This grant was given by Kellogg and over the last three years we have been providing these services to over a thousand institutions of higher learning in the United States. In more recent years, we have been granted money by Kellogg to develop a computer-assisted career guidance and educational planning system for adults. This is referred to as Project LEARN (Lifelong Education, Assessment and Referral Network). Project LEARN has reached the stage that in April of this year we will have a test version of our new computer software system; and in September, we will be at the stage of marketing the system for sale and usage after the "bugs" have been worked out. This is part of an orientation that CAEL has taken which leads us in the direction of service to learners. The first two stages were proof and validation--then institutional development. We want to take our knowledge about experiential learning and what it can do for the adult into the adult community. We want to place our Project LEARN computers in union halls, in companies, in agencies, in libraries--so that the everyday citizen, the everyday student would have access to the possibilities inherent in what it would be like to approach an educational institution with his or her own plan of study and say--I would like to do this.

A second organization, the National Society for Internship and Experiential Education, has been very influential in taking on the traditional area of experiential learning. They have attempted to establish a national group that works to support quality in this area. Its president is Jane Permaul, Dean of Field Studies Development at University of California, Los Angeles. This group has sought to solidify the place of internships and sponsored experiential learning in the educational market place. A third organization has grown out of the Outward Bound movement and is called the Association for Experiential Learning. It focuses mainly on recreational and outdoor activities as a way of building learning for college students. A fourth organization has been in this field for many years and has roots back in the twenties--the Adult Educational Association. This is a very strong organization and one that works within and without higher education to establish principles necessary to carry out adult education. Let me now list some programs that you might want to look at more closely.

Alverno College offers a comprehensive liberal arts, undergraduate, competency-based degree program. It is located in Milwaukee, a small women's college; it has taken on the traditional degree program and said, instead of course work, we want to design a program that is based entirely upon competency. We want to grade that competency by degree of complexity, which many people translate as the freshman, sophomore, junior and senior level distinction. They further said that we want to divide it into areas which many people might want to call departments. The University of Massachusetts at Boston has developed what is called the College of Public and Community Service. The University of Massachusetts, Boston, is a public, four-year university, and CPCS is a college within that university dedicated to educational delivery to the lower class, women, minorities, and urban adults. CPCS also recognizes credit for prior learning.

Let me talk about my own institution--the University of San Francisco. It is a private four-year Catholic university. The college that I helped found, the School of Continuing Education, is a college within a traditional university, reaching out to adults and organizations in a role that's external and recognizes credit for prior learning. The model that was developed by the University of San Francisco has been adopted by at least a dozen institutions throughout the country. The University of Albuquerque's Adult Education Program and the College of Santa Fe's School Open Studies are two of these institutions. Both of these programs reach out to adult populations and treat them in a non-traditional manner.

The State University of New York system has said that each of its campuses must institute assessment centers; that is, centers that will entertain adults' challenges for credit from prior experiential learning. Now that's an entirely traditional system that has been told by its legislature that they must consider this. Assessment centers in industry are places in which agencies and industries attempt to analyze their employees' competencies, to determine what people should be appointed to what higher level of employment. Developmental Dimensions, International, in Philadelphia, is an organization that has done this on an extensive level and Syntex on the peninsula in California is another organization which has done this extensively. Another non-traditional approach to education is the television network that is being sponsored by the National University Consortium. This consortium has modeled itself after the Open University System in England and its television course series.

Several state legislatures have mandated an adult-tiered college program. An example is Empire State College in New York. It is an adult-oriented, legislatively-mandated, decentralized, modular program which recognizes credit from prior learning and grants undergraduate degrees. Let me speak to you about the consortium that I've been working with in Southern California. It represents a traditional pattern of the cooperation of two-year schools which are feeder schools to a four-year college within the Southern California region. Four community colleges are sponsoring a research project in relationship to two four-year colleges on how students who are adult learners, and who have been granted credit for prior learning at the two-year level, fare when they transfer to the four-year level. We'll be using a sample of younger traditionally aged students who transferred out of the same two-year colleges into the same four-year colleges as a control group.

Let me make a comment about successful programs and marginally successful programs of traditional and non-traditional adult education. Private sector institutions and specially chartered public sector institutions have been more successful. Pocketed programs within larger institutions can be more successful. But they are almost always beseiged by frustration, by the very fact that they are pocketed within larger public higher education institutions. I'd like to move out of this set of examples and move on to my final set of comments--and that's a note of caution.

One response to almost all of what I've said is: Well, that's interesting, but what does that have to do with my institution? How does my institution relate to the world of adult learning or the world of learning in education as it may be changing? I think these are valid questions. Let me give you a response to those questions. I think each educational institution must determine its goals in consultation with its faculty, its administrators, its constituency, its legislature, its board of regents, and with all of the major actors--it must determine its own goals. That means that an institution can have great goals, global goals, or little goals. But it must engage in the process that allows goals that are its own to be identified. Next, each educational institution needs to identify the means by which they will meet those goals and the means to meet those goals must be enacted. You've got to decide what you're going to do in order to meet your goals and then you've got to do it. You must then provide ways in which to measure whether the means you've established to meet those goals are actually achieving the goals. This measure must be devised and must be employed. Put another way, you've got to measure how you decided what you wanted to achieve and whether it is actually being achieved. Then I think you have to make sure that your measurement of successes and failures are made public. People must know how you perceive yourself in terms of how you are doing what you are doing. Next, and penultimately, you must or may continue your successes. Plans must be made and must be made public about how you're going to correct your failures and those plans must be implemented. From there, you must loop back to: a) institutional goal setting, b) means to achieve those goals, or c) ways to measure your achievement of these goals, whichever is appropriate. I think it is only when we follow these steps religiously, if you will accept this from a person coming from a Jesuit institution, will we assure

that we meet the needs of our constituency, that we remain true to our goals as educators, and that we contribute significantly to the fabric of American society.

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by

Dr. R. Andrew Johnson

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"Development and Status of the American Community/Junior College"

by

Dr. S. Gregory Bowes

Introduction

The community/junior college is a uniquely American effort at providing learning opportunities at the postsecondary level. This higher education institution exemplifies the "American Dream" that people can learn, can grow, and can prosper through hard work. The egalitarian ideal that adult and higher education opportunities should be available to all Americans is personified by the community/junior college. The inception, development, and current expanded services of these visionary institutions have supported their claim of being the "people's college" or the "American college."

The purpose of this paper will be to examine the development of the community/junior college movement in the United States. Particular attention will be given to a description of the current status of institutional mission, governance and administration, curricular efforts, students and student services, faculty, and issues emerging at American community/junior colleges.

Historical Development

The antecedents of the community/junior college movement are found in the late 1800's. At that time there were a few two-year colleges which we administered by private organizations and religious groups. They tended to be small institutions which served specific populations such as the wealthy and young women. The curriculum centered on liberal arts and "finishing." It was not until 1901, when Joliet Junior College began, that a publicly-supported two-year college would open its doors.

The Joliet "experiment" represents a sizeable departure from previous higher education organizations in the United States. To that point in the history of post-secondary education in America, the sole public supplier of needed educational programs had been four-year colleges and universities. The collaboration of the Joliet public school system with the University of Chicago provided for the establishment of Joliet Junior College, which was to deliver the first two years of education. This program was focused on general education/liberal arts and essentially became the basis for junior year, or third year standing at the University of Chicago.

University presidents such as Tappan in Michigan, Follwell in Minnesota, and William R. Harper at the University of Chicago had been advocating the need for their institutions to become more research and scholarly oriented. They wanted their schools to follow in the manner of the more prominent European universities. They felt that the first two years of liberal education were more "capstone" years of secondary education and should be part of the responsibility of secondary school systems.

A new era had begun in American Higher Education; many states followed the Joliet, Illinois, prototype. California, within the next decade or so, provided substantiated public funding for the development of statewide junior colleges. By 1921 there were 207 two-year colleges. The first stage of development had taken place. In both function and name, these institutions were "junior colleges" serving exclusively as the first two years toward the baccalaureate degree.

In its next stage of development, this neophyte institution began shifting to a new primary function--that of providing technical, occupational, and vocational education. Although junior colleges continued to teach in the transfer liberal arts curriculum, occupationally-oriented courses predominated the offerings. The passage of the Smith-Hughes legislation after World War I and the "G.I." Bill of Rights set the tone for increasing the importance and enhancing the image of occupational programs. From approximately 1930 to 1955, this new function of two-year schools helped to further identify the junior college as an institution which provided programs for all types of Americans.

The third era of development of the community/junior colleges is now upon us. Current writers refer to this period as that of the full-service community college. The added dimensions of developmental education and lifelong learning/community education are important examples of an institution's desire to serve all of the learning needs of its students. Currently two-year schools embody the comprehensive mission by providing transfer, occupational, developmental, and lifelong learning courses and programs.

The historical shift from offering exclusively transfer programs to the inclusion of occupational programs to the current multiplicity of activities has also witnessed a dramatic change in student body composition. The full-time day students of the 18-24 year age group who sought degrees has given way to the part-time adult student (in all age brackets) who participates in a wide variety of formats with equal interest in credentialling and non-degree programs.

Mission & Service

The comprehensive community college is a product of social pressures and rapid social change. Many educators believe that the community college with a full-service mission is in the best position of any educational institution to meet societal needs and wishes in the last two decades of this century. According to Shepherd, the major national social and economic trends favor the community college as a link between need and program delivery. These trends are:

1. Trend toward a post-industrial society.
2. Trend toward increased urbanization.
3. Trend toward increasing significance of energy.
4. Trend toward service occupations.
5. Trend toward growing importance of leisure.

Because of its proximity to people and its historical service orientation, the American community college appears to be a prime participant in providing important educational programs which respond to social needs and wishes.

Terminology helps to define the mission and service community colleges. Throughout the almost 100-year history of public two-year colleges, certain terms have been coined, which reflect the development of thought and practice at these institutions.

OPEN DOOR - This term refers to the basic admission policy of most community colleges. The general statement is that any high school graduate, GED holder, or person over 18 years of age who seems capable of profiting by the instruction offered is eligible for admission. This open door policy guarantees admission to the institution but does not insure admission into every program. This policy gives credence to the ideal of equal opportunity and appropriate education for all citizens.

ACCESSIBILITY - This term refers to availability of learning opportunities from a financial, geographic, and curricular standpoint. Writers and thinkers in the community college movement had advocated the development of institutions which are: (1) financially within the reaches of all Americans - providing low cost education supported principally by tax monies, (2) geographically located within 60 miles or one hour's drive of all citizens of the service area, and (3) flexibility in offering curriculums for all interests in the community.

COMPREHENSIVE - This term refers to the multiplicity of program thrusts in a community college. The four principal areas of activity are: (1) transfer or liberal arts, (2) occupational or technical, (3) developmental or remedial, and (4) lifelong learning or adult education.

ARTICULATION - This term refers to the communication by community colleges (backward) with secondary schools and (forward) with four-year institutions, which promotes transferability of courses and programs. As the logical link between secondary schools and universities, the community college needs to insure that its programs are designed at the freshman and sophomore levels.

The mission statement of a comprehensive community college should include a commitment in philosophy (and subsequent practice) to a number of critical concepts. They are according to Shepherd:

1. Lifelong learning and the idea that learning is a process that never ends.
2. Community service, community development, and the idea that the institution is community-based and reflects the culture of the area being served.
3. Student development directed and centered.
4. Curricula, offerings program, and activities that reflect the needs and wishes of all the people in the college's service area.
5. Teaching and learning centered.
6. Service directed, with a commitment of services to all.

Governance & Administrative Structure

There are varied forms of organization, governance, and administration of two-year institutions. Currently there are viable examples of private, junior, branch, and community colleges flourishing in this country. A large majority of the 1,231 two-year colleges are comprehensive community colleges; because of this prevalent model, the discussion herein will center on their governance and administrative structure.

Most comprehensive community colleges are locally controlled institutions that are governed in much the same way as other elements of the public schools. The local citizenry elects a board of trustees, which establishes policies for the college, in accordance with laws and regulations of the legislature and state board. This local board is responsible for being the link between the community and the college; its major duties include employing the college's chief executive, approving the budget, and determining the necessary tax rate to sustain the college. In general, the board is responsible for insuring that the college's educational program matches the needs and interests of the service area.

The chief executive, usually called the president, is responsible for interpreting the policies of the board and implementing the total educational program. He/she develops an organizational structure that will effectively implement the entire educational program of the college. The following organizational chart is a generalized schematic that depicts major administrative positions and responsibilities in the

"typical" community college. There are, of course, derivations to this organization in most colleges; this is simply an overview.

Currently public community colleges are supported by four types of revenue: local tax base, tuition funds, state appropriation, and federal/grant monies. The percentage of each category varies from state to state. In some states, such as California, there is no tuition charged to community college students. In New Mexico, there are few two-year schools heavily subsidized by a local tax base (these are mainly branch campuses of universities in New Mexico). The state appropriation is the highest money provider for financing. According to Witter, the following percentage breakdown is illustrative of funding in New Mexico:

1. Local - 10%
2. Tuition - 20%
3. State - 50-60%
4. Federal - 10-20%

It is important to note that institutional control and financial dependency are positively related. In cases where a high percentage of funds come from locally supported tax monies, the community college can be more autonomous in regard to administration and curricular offerings. The two-year schools, which rely heavily on state appropriated funds, must realize that the state boards can exercise more control over certain aspects of the colleges' operations.

Curricular Programs

The diversity in format and content of community college offerings is consistent with the overall mission of the institution. A variety of formats is used in providing educational opportunities to different groups. Most community colleges see themselves as having a specific curricular obligation--that of providing programs of "breadth" and "depth." This essentially means that there is a wide range of content areas and that within each of these areas there is substantial difference in level of instruction. The specific content and format for delivery of offerings vary within each instructional area. The following categories illustrate this phenomena:

1. Transfer/ Liberal Arts

   The purpose of this curricular focus is to provide the first two years of a four-year bachelor's degree. Students earn an Associate of Arts Degree, which generally includes a liberal arts orientation with course work in general education, languages, humanities, arts and sciences, and electives.

2. Occupational/Technical

   The purpose of this curricular focus is tri-fold: (1) to provide minimal skill development for entry level jobs, (2) to provide certificate programs of one to three semesters in length that incorporate a minimum of general education with substantial technical courses, and (3) to provide an Associate in Applied Science Degrees that combines adequate general education requirements with a heavy emphasis on technical courses. The success of these programs at comprehensive community colleges has been linked to the use of lay advisory communities that articulate specific business/labor market needs. These needs are then translated into viable occupational programs.

3. Developmental/Remedial

The purpose of this curricular focus is to provide basic skills to students who enter the college deficient in particular areas. Many times such areas as human potential exploration, learning styles, and study skills are combined with skill development in reading, writing, speaking, and math. This function of the college enables students to use the "open door" to the institution, refine their knowledge and skills, and then move into a particular transfer of occupational program. The format generally used is an open lecturing laboratory environment.

4. Lifelong Learning/Adult Education

The purpose of this curricular focus is to provide for vocational, community service needs of the college's constituents. Varied formats such as workshops, symposia, lectures, and institutes are used to provide a multiplicity of offerings. These activities are developed as instantaneous responses to community needs; because they are not part of degree or certificate programs, flexibility in organization and delivery is maximal.

The comprehensive community college seeks to provide instruction in each of these four curricular areas. Because of certain sociological, economic, historical, and financial considerations, the percentage of offerings in each area will vary from institution to institution, from year to year.

Students & Student Services

In the very late 1800's, a handful of two-year colleges existed with enrollment numbering only approximately 100 students. Today, there are over 1,200 such private and public institutions with enrollment well over four million students. The typical students in the 1900-1950 era were generally a member of the 18-24 year age group and had as a major aim the completion of a degree (or subsequent transfer) to a four-year program. This student was representative of the middle class of America in most cases.

At the present time, students at community/junior colleges are examples of a cross section of the total American populace. Although the numbers of traditional college-group age has declined recently, two-year institutions are expected to continue their growth by serving increased proportions of women, minorities, and older students through expanded community education offerings.

Specific events in our country's history have influenced this new wave of enrollments. Some of the more important ones are:

1. Civil Rights legislation helped to encourage members of minority groups to exercise their constitutional and personal rights more freely.
2. Higher Education legislation has paved the way for many grants, scholarships, loans, and jobs that allow different kinds of students to study at community/junior colleges.
3. Institutions have adopted an extension, or outreach function, for higher education and have implemented many learning programs convenient to student homes. Certain programs for specific clientele groups such as correctional inmates, handicapped persons, and military personnel are even offered on-site.
4. National movements such as Women's Liberation and the Grey Panthers have given attention to the special learning needs of subsets of the general population.

The specific characteristics of students at particular community colleges will vary from program to program. However, it is a known fact that a trend exists for older-age students, for more students to be part-time learners, for students who also have family responsibilities, and for students who are employed. These students tend to step in and out of the educational setting; they are extremely time conscious and goal-oriented. They attempt to integrate their education with a number of family, work, and community roles and responsibilities.

Certain studies have further defined and examined two-year college students who are enrolled in transfer programs. In the area of academic aptitude, the majority of studies agree that the average academic ability of two-year college students is less than their four-year counterparts. This is directly related to the fact that community/junior colleges have an open admissions policy that welcomes students at all levels of aptitude and socioeconomic status.

Research has shown that two-year college students come from lower socioeconomic homes; they give a high priority to the low costs of tuition and fees; they see the potential of increased income as the primary reasons for college attendance; and they are concerned with upward mobility. Freshmen at two-year schools tend to be less self-confident than four-year college freshmen on traits such as academic ability, drive to achieve, leadership ability, and math and writing ability. They are influenced more by practical considerations and less by intellectual interests.

Because of shifts in student population, it is becoming increasingly more important for community/junior colleges to compile student characteristics. The mission of the two-year institution is to serve all of the community's learning needs; it is critical that schools can provide educational programs and services that are in step with their students. Student characteristics can be one of the bases for institutional research, evaluation, and subsequent change. Student services must change to meet the expressed needs of the new student body.

Student services at the community/junior college are usually administered under the direction of a Dean for Student Affairs. This student services operation has changed dramatically in the last decade as a response to new student needs; primary importance has been given to providing accessibility to all student services throughout the institution's 8:00 a.m. to 9:00 p.m. day. The following is a breakdown of specific student services provided for both full-time and part-time learners.

Financial Aids - The purpose of this service is to maximize the use of all types of financial aids, which can help support students while they learn.

Placement - The purpose of this service is to provide access to information and referrals for jobs that are available for college students as they finish their programs.

Testing - The purpose of this service is to help identify students' particular interests, abilities, and aptitudes and place them in an appropriate program of study.

Registration and Records - The purpose of this service is to enroll students and document courses and programs in which they have participated.

Activities - The purpose of this service is to provide cultural, recreational, and social activities for students as an integral part of their learning environment.

Academic/Personal Advisement - The purpose of this service is to provide students with a counselor who can listen to students' concerns and help them identify solutions to their academic and personal problems.

Faculty & Faculty Development

Central to the success of every educational institution is the faculty. Aside from the learners themselves, faculty members constitute the most important resource that a community/junior college possesses. These are the people with whom the students have the most contact and are figures who command the most authority. The faculty at two-year schools, their academic preparation, levels of experience, specific job responsibilities certainly merit discussion in the total examination of the community/junior college.

Until recently the majority of faculty teaching at two-year institutions were full-time instructors. Many of these people became teachers at these postsecondary institutions in the 1960's during the great expansion era. Their previous teaching experience had been primarily limited to the junior and senior high school levels. A few graduate programs for the preparation of community college faculty have produced a tract for full-time instructors during the past two decades.

Recent research studies have given us a profile of the full-time faculty member. Some of the more salient characteristics of this group are:

1. There are approximately 2/3 males and 1/3 females.

2. Most come from the White/Caucasian background (90%), with the other 10% about equally representative of five ethnic minorities.

3. Almost 50% are in the 31-45 age group, with another 23% in the 46-55 bracket.

4. Almost 90% hold a Master's Degree and another 20% or so are actively pursuing a Doctoral Degree.

5. Most have minimally 19 years of teaching experience, and many have well over 20 years.

6. More than 50% teach 13 hours or more per week and an additional 25% teach 7-12 hours.

Faculty have voiced opinions on why they prefer teaching at community/junior colleges. Many favor the large teaching responsibility, the opportunity to interact with students on a more informal basis, the security of their teaching position, their remuneration levels, and their general work environment. Cohen and Brawer state that faculty value more the concepts of respect, wisdom, inner harmony, family, security, and freedom than those of social recognition, pleasure, a comfortable life, and salvation.

The emergence of the multiplicity of programs at two-year institutions has prompted the hiring of many part-time faculty members. Studies are underway which will describe the new model of instructor more precisely than previously documented. Some of the aspects of part-time faculty, which are known, are:

1. They reach into all aspects of the curriculum.

2. Many are specialists in their content area, but have little or no training in professional education.

3. They tend to be more motivated by interest in their subject and in teaching than in the financial rewards.

4. They tend to step in and out of the teaching arena since it is only a part-time venture.

The expansion of the community/junior college movement accelerated greatly in the 1960's. This growth created many new faculty positions at two-year schools; positions for which suitable and experienced teachers could not be found. Institutions were forced to hire faculty who were partially qualified; they seemed to have either a content mastery or teaching experience, but most had only one of these qualifications. A major challenge to administrators became that of providing faculty development (in-service) activities, which could help to better equip the faculty to do their day-to-day teaching.

The majority of faculty development programs initiated have sought to improve teaching performance through such avenues as:

1. Micro-teaching and review.

2. Planning instruction.

3. Evaluating instruction.

4. Implementing audio-visual aids.

5. Understanding the community college mission.

6. Working with college students.

The community/junior college is a teaching institution. Efforts have been made to hire the best teachers possible. Where minimally trained faculty have been hired, a high priority has been given to provide suitable in-service opportunities for professional advancement. In the case of part-time faculty, many institutions are now accepting the responsibility of helping lay teachers with content expertise gain some experience in instructional design, course evaluations, and teaching methodologies. The part-time instructor will be a key to the success of the community/junior college with its expanded lifelong learning mission of the late 1900's.

Summary

The last two decades of this century mark the completion of the first 100 years of operation for publicly-supported two-year colleges. Throughout their history, these institutions have been an evolving force in American postsecondary education. Observers of the community/junior college movement have witnessed significant changes in the role and mission during their development. This "American" or "People's" college is today strategically located across the United States and currently serves well over four million learners with a wide array of programs and activities.

The community/junior college faces many challenges in its next era of development and possible stabilization. The future appears to be promising for two-year institutions as they seek to implement changes, which will allow them to be even more responsive to their learning constituencies. According to Gleazer, the following are areas in which comprehensive community colleges will need to work if they are to continue to have an important impact upon the learning force of our country. These areas are:

1. Insure Institutional Adaptability.

2. Develop New Delivery Systems.

3. Cultivate Legislative/Funding Support.
4. Improve Teaching/Learning Strategies.
5. Enhance Interagency Cooperation.
6. Provide Technical Assistance.
7. Develop Community Research Capabilities.
8. Continue Linkages with World of Work.
9. Implement a Strong Public Relations Program.
10. Foster the "Comprehensive Mission"

A Suggested Reading List

by

S. Gregory Bowes

Cohen, Arthur M. and Florence B. Brawer. The Two-Year College Instructor Today. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1977.

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Heerman, Barry, et al., Guest Editors. Serving Lifelong Learners. ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges, Vol. VIII, No. 1, 1980.

Interview with Mr. John Shepherd, Vice President, New Mexico Junior College, Hobbs, New Mexico, 1983.

Interview with Dr. William Witter, President, Santa Fe Community College, Santa Fe, New Mexico, 1983.

"Adult Education in Business and Industry"

by

Mr. Richard L. Knowdell

Before I discuss the aspects of adult education in business, I want to share with you some of my own personal experiences with adult education. My first contact with adult education came because of my unsuccessful experience with secondary education. I dropped out of high school at age 15, worked at a few unskilled jobs, and then spent four years in the Air Force. While I was stationed in Germany, I contacted the base education office and asked about completing my high school education. The education clerk thumbed through a book of state education standards and told me that all I had to do was pass a GED Test and then successfully complete a course in U.S. History. I promptly took and passed the GED Test. The history "course" amounted to reading a U.S. history book and taking a test. I skimmed the book, took the test and passed it. The clerk said all I had to do when I got out of the service was to take the test results and course completion certificate to my old high school back in California and they would grant me my high school diploma. Very easy, right? Wrong!

Although my first experience with adult education had been quite easy and positive, my reception in California was much different. As a 21-year-old former Air Force Sergeant I presented myself at the administration office of my former high school and requested my diploma. Yes, I had passed the GED Test. Yes, I had completed the history course. No, I had not completed a course in local government--civics. It seems that the clerk had overlooked the fine print. California had added the requirement of a course in local government. Needless to say, I was not about to sit in a classroom with high school juniors for a semester and the school was not about to bend its rules for me. Consequently, my next experience with adult education was not to come for ten more years.

Fortunately, the ten-year wait was worth it. Instead of barriers, I now found incentives and inducements to become involved in adult education. I could take courses at the local community college even though I lacked a high school diploma. I did not have to take an entrance examination. I did not have to disrupt my job--I could take the courses I wanted after work. And, if I wanted to cut back on work and attend classes full time, the government would give me an NDEA Loan to help with my expenses. Finally, as a 30-year-old college freshman, I would have the comfort of attending classes with a wide range of adults, some of whom would be older than I.

I wanted to share those experiences in order to convey to you the gut level orientation that I have toward adult education. Along with many other Americans, I have held strong feelings about adult education--feelings that were both positive and negative. And it is an attitude based on these feelings that I have taken with me as I became a professional adult educator.

Let me now discuss two different institutions that provide education to adults. I visited both institutions during a single week last year. One was a public two-year college located in an east coast city which also was the home of a major military

installation. The college campus was attractive and uncluttered. There were few students on campus that morning and the student counseling center that I was visiting was doing a light business. I asked a counselor where all the students were, and she said that most of the students were from the military base and attended classes in the evening. When I finished my business at 4:30 that afternoon, the counselor locked the Counseling Center and walked me to my car. She told me that the center closed each day at that time; and when I asked how the evening students got counseling, she said that she supposed they came in during the day.

When I left that college I flew back to California where I had occasion to visit a large industrial facility that was involved in physics, electronics, and biological research. While it was not a major aspect of their business, this organization was providing some adult education. A tour of the facility and a discussion with the training and education director revealed the extent of this education and demonstrated some creative ways that the education was delivered to the employees. There were five channels of closed circuit television that were carrying technical courses during work hours, and one could see employees consuming knowledge at study carrels throughout the facility. A courier from the university that originated the television class delivered course materials daily. All courses were videotaped and an employee who missed the day's class could come in at midnight and have the tape played on one of the open channels. On Thursdays the students could use the closed circuit camera to question their professor during video office hours. This same organization provides on-site classroom space for non-traditional degree programs that are tailored to the needs of employees.

I have gone to some length to point out a traditional public educational institution that rather than enhancing the delivery of education seemed to unconsciously retard it. I next described a non-educational organization, a business that was providing a great deal of adult education and was going to great lengths to remove the barriers that separate knowledge and the learner. This then, is my topic: "The Emergence of Education in Industry: How much is it doing; should industry be providing education; and what can traditional education do to meet this challenge?"

A story headline in the January 22, 1981, Wall Street Journal states: "Employers take over where schools failed to teach the basics." Is there substance behind this headline? Let us answer this question by examining some trends and some statistics. Large and medium-sized organizations are starting to devote significant resources--money and staff--to education and training activities. Much money is going to private vendors for training materials and packaged courses. The National Institute for Education (NIE) in a recent request for a proposal (REP) asks the question: "Why are corporations buying training packages from profit making organizations rather than from government subsidized educational institutions?" Complicating an easy answer to this question are the facts that subsidized educational institutions can deliver the training product at a lower cost and corporations are experiencing declining profits and should be tightening their budgets.

The NIE request for proposals poses these points: 1) The lack of a steady flow of adult learners into traditional institutions may cause these institutions to contract in size, reduce standards, or close their doors; 2) The fact that employers are resisting utilizing traditional education institutions may indicate the presence of a major dysfunction in our educational system; 3) If employer-based education reults, as some organizations claim, in a substantial increase in economic productivity and individual well-being, then maybe government ought to be subsidizing the employe who provides the education and/or employees who participate in the educational activities; 4) Government requirements and regulations being imposed on business may be a significant cause of rising employer investment in employee training.

Just how widespread is employer-based education and just what does it involve? Let us look at some statistics.

- During 1975, a recession year, private employers in the United States spent over two billion dollars on employee education.
- Seven out of ten U.S. companies incur direct costs for in-house education. These companies employ 45,000 full-time instructors, administrators, and evaluators.
- In 1977, 3,700,000 employees took courses during working hours. One third of these employees studied management, supervision, or interpersonal relations.
- During the same year 700,000 employees participated in internal courses after hours.
- More business education programs are conducted in-house by employers each year than are provided for the public by educational institutions.

Let us look at some statistics on who provides this education and training:

- Of the 3,000 entities that offer business and management courses, only 700 are colleges or universities.
- The American Management Associations (AMA) conduct 3,200 programs each year for 100,000 enrollees.
- There are 40,000 publicly offered business seminars annually, not counting university extension courses or company in-house programs.
- Technical societies offer over 1,000 courses each year for over 30,000 enrollees, 55 percent of whom are not society members.

We have looked at figures on the numbers of employees taking courses but what about the cost of employee education? Not much hard data is available. A study currently being conducted by Laurence Weinstein of Sacred Heart University in Bridgeport, Connecticut, has generated an interesting preliminary finding. The average cost for each participant in employer-sponsored training courses varied from $146.00 to $15,194.00. While an "average cost" for a training program appears impossible to pinpoint, Weinstein has uncovered some interesting cost figures:

- Each employer training dollar is allocated for:
  - Classroom Costs 37¢
  - Administration Costs 28¢
  - Participant Compensation 35¢
- Employers frequently find that it is cheaper to hire instructors from outside their training staff.

. Costs for instructional materials are generally very low.

. Costs for classroom facilities are generally low.

Let us now examine some aspects of education in the workplace. In industry a prevalent philosophy holds that the responsibility for success or failure of education does not lie with the students but with the instructional staff and teaching materials. This does not sound like a very secure place to teach, does it? Well, security is not one of the reasons that adult educators are drawn to industry. Companies are not bound by the traditional constraints on innovation that often hamper the development of new courses and programs by educational institutions. For instance, in a typical college a person must decide which department will offer the course. Next a proposal is drawn up and lobbies through the curriculum committee. Finally, there must be the insurance that the instructor possesses the correct academic credentials. In the corporation the training director identifies a need for a course and institutes it. In industry the instructor teaches highly motivated learners. In an industrial classroom the learning occurs at the same site where the work is done, facilitating the immediate application of theory. Finally, corporate education is pragmatic. It is implemented solely to achieve the goals of the business, that is, to make a profit.

The freedom to implement programs in the workplace has fostered a great deal of innovation. Recent years have seen the emergence of the following programs:

. Internal Job Posting Systems
. Individualized Career Planning
. Flexible Work Schedules
. Job Sharing
. On-Site Child Care Centers
. Sabbatical Leaves
. Lateral Transfers
. Tuition Reimbursement
. Pre-Retirement Counseling

The following list shows a few large organizations and some of their innovative programs:

. IBM: Operates 275 Education Centers
. Kimberly-Clark: Two-weeks' Paid Education Leave
. Rand: Grants Degrees including Ph.D.
. GM: Operates an Institute and Grants Degrees
. 3M: Conducts College Level Math/Science Classes
. Xerox: International Center for Training and Management
. RCA: Videotaped Classes for Home Use
. Disney Studio: Disney University

The Conference Board has recently completed a survey of on-site training and education programs conducted in business and industry that shed some light on the recipients of such training. The following chart contrasts services provided to exempt and non-exempt employees:

On-Site Training	Percent of Companies	
	Non-Exempt	Exempt
Subjects		
Safety and Industrial Hygiene	53%	59%
Specific Job Skills	84	65
First Aid	35	41
Supervisory Skills	28	81
Interpersonal Skills	43	71

Training Methods	Non-Exempt	Exempt
On-the-Job Training	73%	61%
Lecture, Demonstration, Discussion	59	76
Self-Study Training Manual	28	37
Programmed Instruction	36	43
Job Rotation	28	34
Role Playing	22	42
Case Method	15	41
Apprenticeship	9	7
Training Instructors		
Full-Time Company Trainers	42%	41%
Part-Time Use of Personnel Staff	55	64
Company Supervisors	60	54
Company Vendors	24	24
Outside Consultants	25	48
Vocational School Teachers	11	9
University or College Professors	11	27

The Conference Board has collected much data over time from business and industry, and the results of their recent survey on tuition reimbursement practices reveal some marked changes in a 15-year span.

Conference Board Tuition and Study	1964	1974
Employers offering tuition aid to non-exempt white collar workers	70%	91%
Employers offering tuition aid to non-exempt blue collar workers	47%	79%
Employers approving aid for college and university courses leading to a degree or professional certification	9-15%	80-97%
Employers requiring that courses be job related	80%	80%
Employers requiring an acceptable grade as a condition of reimbursement	10%	75%
Employers reserving reimbursement until course completion	67%	78%

Despite the trend of increased offering of tuition aid programs cited in the Conference Board Survey, many workers are not taking advantage of these programs. In a study of data collected from 910 workers covered by negotiated tuition aid programs, Ivan Charner reports in the May 1980 issue of Training and Development that a significant segment of workers report encountering barriers to utilizing these programs. The specific barriers and the percentage of workers who reported encountering them follow:

Barrier	Percent
Not Enough Company Encouragement	56%
Not Enough Information About Available Courses	43
Taking the Course would not Result in the Desired Promotion	43
Company Resistance to Rearranging the Work Schedule	40

Barrier	Percent
Family Commitments do not Leave Sufficient Free Time	33%
The Program will not Cover a Wide Enough Variety of Courses	32
While the Company Will Pay Later, Not Enough Money to Pay Tuition in Advance	32
Courses are not Offered at Convenient Times	30
Too Much Company Red Tape Required to Participate	27
The Plan does not Pay Enough of the Cost	26
The Company does not Really Care about This Benefit	25

An examination of these reactions from employees reveals that the company is seen as blocking access to tuition reimbursement (and the resulting education) in nine out of the eleven examples.

This last set of statistics brings us almost full circle. I began by addressing how educational institutions have failed in many cases to facilitate the delivery of education to adults. I then discussed employer-based education and pointed out some of the innovations in the workplace designed to enhance the delivery of education to adults. I would like to come full circle by describing a new program at a traditional educational institution that appears to be effectively merging the technologies and facilities of both the academic and industrial sectors and resulting in the delivery of educational services to working adults.

The program that I want to describe involves a community college in California's "Silicon Valley," that enclave of high technology computer related corporations that appeared, at least until last week, to be the only segment of our industry that was immune to the current economic crises. It is also interesting to note that public education in California, including the community colleges, is in deep trouble in the eyes of the public. The passage of Proposition 13 is clear evidence that in the eyes of the voters the schools have failed. Consequently, this particular community college's enrollment was declining and their state funds had been cut drastically. The community college needed to attract new students. The local high technology firms were also in crises--but a crisis of a different kind. These industries had become too successful. Budgets and manpower had been doubling each year. The technology had outgrown the knowledge base of current employees and the competition for new employees was fierce. Employees who lacked interpersonal and management skills were being promoted to supervisory jobs. People in the industry needed education. The community college needed students. It became obvious that the two could work together.

In this case, the comunity college took the initiative. They hired an industry relations and marketing representative. The representative's role was to visit local industries and find out what courses were needed. If there was no existing course, the representitive would recruit someone to design the course and shepherd it through the curriculum committee. An attempt would then be made to secure a classroom in the employer's facility to maximize ease of course entry. In many instances a qualified internal employee was recruited to teach the course. Finally, the representative would minimize red tape by getting the college to waive entrance tests and allow enrolment by mail or at the classroom during the first night the class met.

After a very successful first year, this community college is expanding its offerings to industry, and other community colleges are beginning similar programs. Industries in this area are now viewing the community college as an inexpensive source of high quality training programs for employees.

I have covered many points that could be considered negative in relation to adult education: my own early experience with adult education, the statistics which suggest industry may be going its own way and moving away from the traditional educational institutions, and barriers which traditional education has put in the path of the adult learner. However, in spite of these negative points, I want to end on a positive plane--I am optimistic that traditional educational institutions and industry can work together to provide quality adult education to employees in the workplace.

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by

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For further information concerning the cost of employee education, contact Dr. Richard E. Anderson, Department of Adult and Higher Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, Box 156, 525 West 120th Street, New York, NY 10027.

For further information concerning on-site training and education programs, contact Harriet Gorlins, The Conference Board, 845 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10022.

"The Reentry Woman in Higher Education"

by

Dr. Dolores Hentschel

Three days before Christmas, my husband Tom arrived home from work with an enormous box which he dropped at my feet in the kitchen. The huge letters across the sides of the box instantly conveyed to me what was inside. I squealed with delight. "A Microwave--for me?" "No," Tom replied. "For me. I'm tired of doing all the cooking." We carefully removed this soon-to-be boon to our lifestyle from its protective covering, cleared a place for it on the counter, and began to examine its myriad numbers, controls and gadgets. "It looks pretty complicated," I moaned. "Well," Tom confessed, "I didn't even get the top of the line. It looked so complicated that I figured you'd need to be an engineer to work it, and I wasn't about to give you a reason to go back to school again."

Since I completed my Ph.D. only a year ago, Tom and I know from first hand experience what being a reentry woman means. This short episode in our lives illustrates many of the results of the back-to-school movement of the last twenty years. We're experiencing a slight change in roles, certainly some shifts of values, and we readily acknowledge the difficulties and frustrations it has entailed. This is a complicated movement. Like any meaningful social movement, it has its benefits and costs, its champions and, if not enemies, critics, as it subtly--and not so subtly--changes direction over time. I would like to briefly review the history of this movement, share some research-based generalizations about the women who are the participants, examine some of the implications and raise some questions about our practices which arise from that history and research.

Let's turn the clock back to 1960--twenty years ago. Think for a minute where you were and what the educational world was like. I was a freshman at Chatham College, a woman's college, in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. When I selected Chatham, everyone in the St. Louis suburb, where I lived, thought I had gone crazy. Why would any girl want to go to a school with other girls? (The word "women" did not yet apply to us.) Wasn't college supposed to be the place where you got your MRS. degree? College was where we went after high school, studied something interesting (if you were a girl, you probably majored in education, home economics, nursing or liberal arts), were initiated into the world of beer parties, the Greek system, college football games and serious dating, for the purpose of finding a lifetime mate. Even though I quickly discovered that the same rites of passage were available at Chatham, I decided, at the end of my freshman year, to transfer to the University of Missouri where my high school sweetheart (who now brings home presents like microwave ovens) was also entering his sophomore year. I proved to all of my high school friends that I wasn't crazy after all. Three years later, in 1963, I graduated from Mizzou and was presented with a traditional senior portrait by the undergraduates in my sorority. There was Doe, in caricature, wearing cut-off blue jeans, Phi Beta Kappa and Mortarboard banners draped across her chest in beauty queen fashion, a bridal veil for a crown and a bride's magazine for a scepter. It was no secret that my attention was primarily focused on my upcoming wedding. I was very typical.

Higher education for women in the early Sixties was becoming increasingly popular, but even those of us who completed college before we got married thought little about careers or what our lives would really be like once we got married. We knew the answer. Even if we worked for a while after marriage (and many of us did), it would probably only be until we got pregnant. We would then live out our lives according to the script that we had written at our mothers' sides. Most of us had no idea what was really about to take place.

I don't know how much attention and fanfare the 1960 Minnesota Plan for the Continuing Education of Women (CEW) received when it was published, but today that plan is clearly recognized as the forerunner of what may prove to be the phenomenon which will rewrite the history of American higher education. The plan addressed the non-traditional needs of women at three different stages in their lives. It recognized that undergraduate women (understood to be students of traditional age) needed to be made aware of the different roles which they would fill during their lives--wife, mother, homemaker, community member, worker, professional, etc. The plan called for educational programs which would make these young women aware of the discontinuity in which these roles result, and an understanding that as new roles emerge and familiar ones change, continuing education would be a viable vehicle for developing the skills and understandings needed to fill these new roles. The second aspect called for a continuing education, non-credit curriculum for the young college-educated mother and homemaker. This curriculum would emphasize enrichment courses to fill her spare time with meaningful activity and provide stimulation which she might find lacking in her daily routine. Her routine, it was assumed, would be home and family-centered. Finally, the plan called for special counseling and recognition of the fact that the college-educated woman, at 40 or 45, would find herself home alone all day, bored and even possibly depressed (Senders, 1961: 270-78). In 1960, this was innovative thinking. The idea that adult women were highly educable and might wish to return to college for any reason was incredible. Except for the veterans who returned to college on their GI Bills, adults simply had not been a part of the campus scene. And women--married women--coming back to school? Not quite science fiction, but innovative for sure.

The idea began to take hold slowly and then caught fire. In 1963, there were 20 programs identified as continuing education for women in universities, colleges and community colleges in the United States. By 1976, there were over 500. The rule of thumb is that educational innovations take about 50 years to take hold, so this was a phenomenal growth, indeed. I think it can be explained by understanding some concurrent movements which emphasized the need for continuing education for women and created an educational environment in which the early seeds could quickly flourish.

The first of these movements is, obviously, the women's movement. Ms magazine recently published a chronology of the 70's, which is called "The Decade of Women" (Steinhem, 1979: 59-92). It reminded me vividly of how recent the women's movement is. The Senate began holding ERA hearings in 1970 (Steinhem, 1979: 60). Women didn't start discarding their bras until 1968 and bra burning was even later! (Steinhem, 1979: 61). Even Gloria Steinhem, the symbol of the women's movement, in my mind, commented:

> I was certainly old enough to understand these well-educated, white, upper-middle-class housewives who began to rebel in the Sixties against a feminine mystique that had kept them and their sisters locked out of professions and into the suburbs. Nonetheless, I not only felt little personal connection between their words and my own life, but was often put off by their emphasis on getting a piece of the existing professional pie; on bringing women, as the National Organization for Women put it in 1966, "into full participation

> in the mainstream of American society." ...Only in the late Sixties when many women who had grown up in the peace or civil rights movements began to propose feminism--that is, an analysis that included all women as a caste and called for a transformation of patriarchy, not just integration into it by a few women--did my own feelings of recognition, empathy and hope begin to explode (Steinhem, 1979: 61-62).

So it seems that just as the first CEW programs were taking hold, the women's movement was also coming of age. The redefinition of that movement into a broad-based feminism in the late Sixties meant that that movement began to touch the lives of more and more women across the country, just as reports of these pioneering women's programs began to see publication.

The second movement which was blossoming during the Sixties was the adult education movement. As a formal field of practice within the educational world, adult education is quite young, even today. The first doctorate awarded in 1935, at Columbia, is now legendary. It wasn't really until the Sixties that we can claim to have come of age. Many of our literature's classics including Houle's Inquiring Mind, Johnstone and Rivera's Volunteers for Learning, Verner's Conceptual Scheme for the Identification and Classification of Processes of Adult Education--were published between 1961 and 1965. The year 1965 was a landmark in legislation for adult learners. The provision of federal funds for adult basic education and for community outreach from higher education institutions moved adult education to a position--even though marginal--in public policy.

The later Sixties were years of rapid growth and expansion. Although adult education still operated from a marginal position, programs sprang up in all kinds of institutions and agencies. They were more and more frequently staffed with trained professionals who shared a basic philosophy. They believed that the purpose of these programs was to meet the expressed need of adult learners to facilitate their personal as well as their vocational and professional growth. Their practice was marked by an iconoclastic tendency to experiment with innovative approaches to meet those needs.

A third movement which appears highly relevant to our discussion is the community college movement. Community colleges trace their ancestry to junior colleges which were first established in the early 1900's. Although there was steady growth in both the numbers of institutions established and the number of students served during the first fifty years of the century, primary attention during these years was on providing the first two years of college work and/or terminal vocational training programs. Adult education received little or no attention until 1956 when the National Society for the Study of Education identified four purposes for the junior college: (1) preparation for advanced study, (2) vocational education, (3) general education and (4) community services (Fields, 1962: 71).

The decade of the Sixties saw dramatic growth and change in junior colleges. Five hundred new institutions were established and enrollments tripled (Gleazer, 1973, foreword: 7). Institutions, once considered to be the territory of eighteen-to-twenty year olds, found an increasing number of adults enrolling in their programs. Indeed, by 1962, half of the students in these institutions were adults (Fields, 1962:47). Edmund Gleazer, one of the more prolific writers on the community college movement, observed that the junior college, by its nature close to and a part of its local community,

> showed promise of possessing an adaptive and responsive quality to new needs. These needs related to the concept of the word community which was more often modifying "college" in the name of these institutions. Historically, it could be said that first came the change in name, then came the conditions that pressed the college to become what the name stood for (Gleazer, 1973: 227).

And so, in the late Sixties and early Seventies, we saw a new kind of institution emerge--an institution which provided accessible education to its local community and which included, as part of its mission, meeting community needs in their broadest sense. The pieces all fit together. The women's movement created sudden new needs for women; adult educators were tuned in to these needs and willing to address them; the community colleges embraced such activity as an integral part of their mission. Continuing Education for Women was an idea whose time had come.

In 1970 in suburban Chicago, a women's program was born at Harper Community College. Like many of the early CEW pioneers, this "program" really consisted of just one course--Investigation into Identity. Every semester, suburban housewives, frustrated by the lack of fulfillment they felt in their roles as wives and mothers, flocked to the college to learn how they could find their own identity in this new world. After several years, the college decided that a more concentrated effort should be placed on developing the programming efforts directed toward mature women who were now being recognized as a "target population."

At the same time, I was emerging from two years of counseling, with self-given permission to return to work to do some things I needed to do for myself (the bride magazines, you see, had not told the whole story). I became Harper's first Coordinator of Women's Programs and set out to develop a multifaceted program to meet the many needs of women like myself who were trying to find a new way to fit the pieces together. The program which we developed at Harper was quite typical of the programs springing up everywhere, and in Illinois at least, it served as a model for others which did not have the head start we had enjoyed. That one eight-week non-credit course was joined within 18 months by a score of one-day workshops on everything from "Women and the Law" to "Going Back to School." A dozen non-credit courses offered topics like "Career Development," "Women in Literature," "Interpersonal Communications," "Parenting," and a fledgling support system which included drop-in child care and a women's resource center. Over 1500 women participated in that first year. Clearly, the college had struck it rich and, it was my sincere hope, 1500 women were finding answers to questions they could now ask.

These early women's programs typically consisted of non-credit short courses and one-day workshops. Costs were kept as low as possible, though most programs had to be self-sustaining (including administrative costs). It didn't take long for most of us in administrative roles to recognize the need for support services such as child care, counseling, testing, and even financial aid. Success in securing these services was frequently a function of the priority which the particular institution placed on the women's program. We worked mostly with white, middle-class, relatively well-educated women. While some eventually decided to return to work or to school, the primary focus in those early days was on what we might call enrichment. One young woman complained that she felt truly out of place in "Investigation into Identity" because she was a single woman and could not relate to most of the issues discussed. The lightning flashed and we realized that we had defined our clientele along stereotypical lines and were not addressing the needs of women who differed from that stereotype.

It appears to me that, in many ways, today's women's programs are quite different from those early efforts. To define women's programs as non-credit, enrichment programs would be a narrow definition which has little basis in fact. Even in the early days of the Minnesota Plan, there were other approaches to the continuing education of women, notably women's studies, which were (and are today) usually credit courses in the regular curriculum which focused on women's contributions to the culture. Some early attempts to facilitate the return to graduate study of particularly gifted women were made by Radcliffe College and several other institutions. Today we have to define continuing education for women in a very broad sense--programs designed to encourage and facilitate the resumption of study for women whose formal education has been interrupted. Our definition should include credit and non-credit, graduate and undergraduate, full and part-time study, vocational, professional, and liberal education. It should include programs identified specifically for women which may include support services as well as the less intentional phenomenon of older women returning to higher education regardless of whether any conscious efforts to recruit and retain them and offer specialized curriculum are made by the institution.

A new word has been coined as a result of all this interest in continuing education for women and it, perhaps, connotes the best definition for our purposes. We are talking about the "reentry woman"--regardless of her motivations, the path she chooses to reach her goals, or the institution which serves her.

Gordon in 1967 identified three types of reentry women at the University of California at Berkeley: those with "small goals" such as mastering a specific skill or gaining a special knowledge; the "shoppers" who have no clear idea of what they want, and the job or career-oriented woman who is preparing to return to work. Joy K. Rice characterized the reentry woman who has been the focus of women's programs as the "35 to 55 year old white, urban, middle-class housewife facing the 'empty nest syndrome' and the need to retool." But Rice acknowledged that more and more programs are finally looking at the career development needs of the woman who is already employed in the professions or in business and that a few programs have begun to focus on other racial, socioeconomic or age groups. The research on reentry women, however, tends to perpetuate the stereotype because subjects tend to be the white, middle-class, urban or suburban women who are married or once married who have in fact participated in CEW in the past. Rice and others have pointed out that examination of women's education primarily in terms of how it relates to their traditional family roles limits the extent of our understanding and seems somehow inappropriate in light of today's changing life styles and life patterns (1976, p. 243).

Understanding these limitations, what generalizations can be made about women who have participated in CEW as it has existed over the past 20 years? First of all, she wants to return to work or get a better job. The stereotype of the bored housewife simply is not there when we look at the broad back-to-school movement (Astin, 1976). Study after study affirms that the primary motivation behind the return to school for most women is to increase their job potential. Many of these women already have some college education and some work experience (O'Neill, 1977). Their previous college records tend to be superior, and their vocational orientation is usually better defined than that of younger students, even though it may be inappropriately defined (Heckenhoff, 1966). There is conflicting information regarding whether or not the reentry woman is interested in pursuing a degree. It appears that whether or not there is motivation to complete a degree is related to the necessity of the degree in pursuing the desired vocation or career.

In terms of their views of family life and traditional role expectation, the reentry woman leans toward a non-traditional view but tends not to be in the vanguard of the women's movement. Indeed, the return to school seems to bring about more non-traditional life styles and values, not vice versa. It appears that the reentry

woman may be very troubled by this shift. Krieger (1978) reported that all women in her study became less traditional in their role orientation six months after returning to school.

Suzanne Galler completed a fascinating study in 1977 which compared returning graduate students and their husbands with married, college-educated, community active wives and husbands. The values expressed by the student couples were modern: individuality and autonomy were high on the list. Their expectations of the satisfaction in the comparison group were oriented toward meeting the needs of others through traditional pursuits. The students, however, viewed themselves as self-oriented; and as they progressed toward the achievement of their academic goals, they expressed greater ambivalence about their motivation and personal orientation. They believed that their spouses really wanted traditional, home-oriented wives, and they realized that there was an increasing disparity between who they were and were becoming and this "ideal" role concept. In actuality, both the traditional and professional husbands expressed values which seemed to reflect the actual role orientation of their wives. The students' husbands, however, did not characterize their families as having open communication, cohesiveness, consideration and trust. Galler points out that these findings may suggest tension areas within the families of reentry women.

In Marian Krieger's study (1978), although the women became more non-traditional, a movement toward more traditional values and behavior was observed in husbands whose wives returned to school. These men did not compensate for their wives' additional responsibilities by assuming additional duties in the home. The change in values indicates a strong possibility that while such men might have been supportive of the idea of their wives returning to school, coping with the change that resulted from reentry had perhaps proven to be difficult.

These studies cause me to think that the reentry woman may be caught in the middle of a tug of war. On the one hand, she desires the occupational upgrading and personal enrichment that continuing education affords. As she embarks on her studies, she experiences a sense of satisfaction, achievement and self-worth which support and encourage non-traditional values. On the other hand, the increased pressure on her time and energy, her awareness of the need to compromise her traditional role expectations and--let's say the word--her guilt about placing her needs above the perceived needs of her husband and/or family mitigate against her pursuit of her original goal.

The resulting conflict may be strong enough to cause her to discontinue her study. In a study of factors affecting attrition, Reimal (1978) found that women over 40 and those with incomes under $15,000 persisted better than younger women and more affluent women. This is not too surprising as family-related pressures would probably be less for the older women and the economic pressure (and therefore, perhaps, the family support) greater for the lower income group. He also found that students who told their troubles to friends were more likely to discontinue.

This, at first, seems to be a strange finding. We tend to think that by telling others our troubles we can garner support for our decisions. Having been in the role of the reentry woman, however, I know what is likely to happen when the overburdened, frustrated woman who is exhausted by the juggling act she feels she must perform unburdens her troubles on her friends. They attempt to convince her that she is doing this to herself, that her goals are inappropriate and that she ought to thank her lucky stars that her husband doesn't walk out on her. You see, the role which she is abandoning--or at least changing--includes her relationship with her friends as well as her family. She is no longer part of the coffee klatch or bridge group. She's not available to watch the kids after school when her neighbor goes to the doctor. Worse yet, she may even have asked her neighbor to run over and check on Tommy who's in bed with a sore throat while she's at the college taking an exam.

It has been pointed out that going back to school is a psycho-social process. The student role is learned while the previous roles are simultaneously modified where they compete with the necessary student behaviors. For the reentry woman, this entails a sense of loss, a sense of adventure and, for the persister, a final integration into a new identity. But for the significant others--husband, children, mother, best friend--too often there is only the perceived loss.

I would venture a guess that the reentry woman who has a deep commitment and strong motivation to her educational goals will keep her troubles to herself, or that the reentry woman, who has been able to develop a new peer group which shares her values and her experiences, finds that her troubles are neither unique nor unsolvable. In fact, they may be minimized by sharing responsibilities with these new friends. We have tried to play down the notion that it takes a superwoman to return to school (or work, for that matter). This superwoman can still keep a spotless house and crisply ironed children, get straight A's, can entertain husband's top business client with a gourmet dinner complete with fresh flower centerpieces, can always be counted on to bake cookies for the PTA bake sale and teaches Sunday School as well. We have encouraged women to realize that it doesn't take a superwoman to handle such pressure and demands--that she can return to school and be successful. Well, I'm not so sure that it doesn't take a superwoman. I know that the first time many women express their concern about their ability to handle all of these responsibilities plus school, the significant other whom they tell will sympathetically listen and then say, "Yes, it was so much better before you went back to school." The evidence implies that the reentry woman who succeeds does so because she must do so or because she is indeed a superwoman.

In recognition of these demands, a great deal of study has been done to identify the barriers which prevent women's return, or continuation once she has returned or, to put it another way, the services which are seen as important to facilitating reentry. There is near unanimity in the findings, and I can summarize them rather succinctly. Frequently cited barriers include: family responsibilities including child care, transportation, cost, personal feelings of inadequacy, husband's and/or family's negative attitudes, conflict with job responsibilities, college restrictions (Smallwood, 1977; Tittle & Denker, 1975; Lyman-Viera & Boggs, 1976; and Berry & Epstein, 1963). Dating back to the Minnesota Plan in 1960, colleges and universities have attempted with varying degrees of success to minimize these barriers with support services geared toward women.

Child care services, though often limited and restrictive, are perhaps the most commonly instituted services. In the early Seventies, child care at college was highly innovative, and newspapers would run feature stories about little Tommy going to college with his mom. The first time we offered child care during a workshop at Harper, we enrolled 65 women and 82 children! Today, the new woman student can more reasonably hope that child care will be available in some form on campus. Approximately 25% of the colleges and universities do operate some kind of child care facility, but many more are needed (Rice, 1979, p. 104).

Alternative forms of delivery which enable the reentry woman to better "fit" study into her other responsibilities are more and more typical. Short courses, concentrated formats with longer but less frequent meetings, evening classes, weekend college, guided independent study, credit for life experience and CLEP examinations are examples of institutions--most frequently with prodding by adult educators--doing some of the adjusting.

The personal needs of the reentry woman, her ambivalence about her changing roles, her need for emotional support and her often unfocused vocational interest, require the availability of competent counseling and career guidance. O'Neill (1977) identified "sympathetic counselors and supportive peers" as the most critical element in

women's programs and related her finding that the reentry woman who has a clear and reasonable goal and understands her options frequently has little need of special support services. This would explain why all women do not seem to need counseling; those who have clearly defined objectives and little personal ambivalence are able to reenter with greater ease.

The need for supportive peers and for identifying with a new, compatible peer group can be addressed by a special women's center or lounge on campus, and other socialization mechanisms specifically geared to the adult student (O'Neill, 1977; May, 1977). Since most reentry women rush home after class to do the laundry, they have little opportunity to build those critically important peer relationships outside of class. An adult student lounge can provide a meeting place for between class coffee or lunch.

Many reentry students express their concern over their ability to compete academically with younger students. While the evidence suggests that, in general, these fears are unfounded, study technique workshops, refresher courses and library tours can be a boon to a hesitant student's self-concept and feeling of readiness. Reentry Student Offices often coordinate a special, simplified registration procedure which sometimes eliminates the need for previous transcripts. A creative idea (which admittedly would take a creative administration) would be to enable the student to enroll in one course at a reduced fee, thus providing the reluctant student with a chance to "try out" university study. At the conclusion of the semester, the student could have the option of electing whether or not the course should be placed on a permanent transcript. I would be willing to guess that most students would be pleasantly surprised and eager to not only list their course but to quickly follow up the successful experience with regular enrollment.

Placement offices ready to work with reentry students may not remove barriers to reentry, but are certainly a marketable aspect which may help the vocationally-oriented prospective student decide to enroll. Placement for the older graduate is quite different from placement of traditional age graduates. Assistance in preparing resumes which effectively communicate valuable paid and volunteer experiences from a discontinuous life pattern is badly needed. Not all placement officers know how to do this. The reentry student is usually not mobile--job possibilities within the local area are the only feasible options. This means some creative examination of job openings to determine whether or not they meet the woman's criteria and encouraging women to develop some flexibility regarding their job requirements.

Two areas in which successful support is more elusive include financial aid and the need for faculty role models. In 1974, I testified at a legislative hearing on the need for financial aid to part-time students, which at that time was non-existent. While some aid is now available to students with financial need who carry six credit hours, there is, to my knowledge, no organized, government-supported program for students in noncredit or for those who are carrying fewer than six hours. Financial aid offices need to be aggressive in finding ways to help the reentry woman pay her way--particularly as we attempt to reach out to poor women and single women who are heads of households. Loans, grants, fellowships, and part-time employment all should be pursued, and the reentry woman often doesn't even know what questions to ask. In community college districts, local organizations might be a source of scholarship funds, or special community fund-raisers might be held to generate a source of aid for part-time students with financial needs. It appears that we'll have to forget about any significant governmental assistance in this area for a few years and be creative and resourceful if this barrier is to be diminished.

As the reentry woman goes about creating a new identity by merging her past and current roles, she needs frequent feedback regarding her academic success. She needs to feel acceptance in the student role. Supportive faculty and administrators

who can also serve as role models of successful women--even women who have combined family, educational and career responsibilities--are an important part of the process (May, 1977). Unfortunately, there aren't enough women who fit that prescription. It seems to me that a real service can be provided by administrators and faculty in women's programs. They should create an informal system of women within the institution by generating an awareness among them of their potential for positively influencing the growth of the women they will encounter in their classes. Hopefully, the time will come when there will be more women in such roles and when there will be less of a need for them to serve as models. Until that day, however, access to that kind of influence must be made more readily available to those who seek it and would benefit from it.

Suppose that you have already developed a woman's program with the kind of support services which have been mentioned. There is one more piece of the puzzle. The existence of these services must be communicated, not only to the women on campus, but to the community at large. The research data we have has primarily focused on women who have already reentered college, but what about those who have not reentered? A socioeconomically stratified survey of residents of a community college district in California indicated that over 75% felt that the kind of educational opportunities usually available in women's programs were needed by women. Over 40% of the respondents expressed interest in taking classes at some time in the future (though few had specific enrollment plans) and nearly all of the specific courses cited were already in the curriculum (Lymen-Viera & Boggs, 1976). Mildred Bulpitt, writing in Community College Frontiers in 1977 challenged community colleges to offer women students more than traditional avenues to reach their goals and then actively recruit them.

It seems fair to ask, where do we go from here? Joy Rice (1976) has identified--and criticized--four assumptions on which CEW programs have been built. Our response and reaction to these ideas and some related questions which I'll pose could provide the sense of direction for the future.

Rice points out that CEW programs are based on four assumptions: (1) a discontinuous educational and employment pattern for women; (2) accommodation to prevailing social roles and norms (helping women adapt rather than challenging and changing those norms); (3) a separatist rather than a non-separatist view of education for women; and (4) a remedial, rather than a preventive, approach to the social situation which is the cause of women's distress.

Regarding the first assumption; i.e., the discontinuous educational and employment pattern, there is evidence that traditional life patterns are rapidly disappearing. A frequently cited statistic is that 9 out of 10 women will work at some time during their lives. We are also discovering that the more education a woman has, the more likely she is to pursue a career. Childbearing is being postponed, and childrearing is less and less frequently a full-time pursuit. The dual-career family is now a recognized reality. The question we need to ask is, if the discontinuity on which reentry programs were built is becoming a myth, what will the educational needs of reentry women--many of whom will not be seeking retooling for resumed employment--be in the future and how might this affect our curricular approaches in such programs.

The second assumption, regarding accommodation versus change, reminds me of a conversation I had in 1974 when a professor questioned the value of the Women's Program at Harper. He pointed out that we were treating symptoms and doing nothing to attack the cause of the problem. I replied that when someone was hit by a car in front of my house, it was critical to stop the bleeding. Certainly one should treat the injury before calling the traffic department to study the speed limit. I knew this was a transitional stage. I also recognized that in 1974 one did not openly acknowledge that one was out to change the historical value system which has resulted in non-parallel lives for men and women in a Congressional District which had been

represented for years by the most conservative member of the House of Representatives.

Today's question is: Are we still approaching CEW as an interim approach, or have we been fooled into believing it is the answer?

The separatist issue centers on at least two phenomena: First of all, as women change, men also must change and very likely need assistance which is not very different from the support offered to women through CEW programs. Secondly, not only is the discontinuous employment pattern for women fading, the continuous, steady pattern of a young man starting at the bottom and working his way up through the company to receive his gold watch is becoming less and less typical. Men seem to need career guidance and support for job changes just as much as women. Those who have recognized this tend to promote programs of special curriculum and support for all adults, not just women.

I think there is one other perspective that has to be considered. I learned at Chatham College that when women were alone in a classroom, they could express themselves articulately and powerfully; they could be innovative and creative; they did not compete with each other but could be collaborative. They did not risk their femininity by being bright and productive. At Harper, I found that adult women experienced a real difference in women's education as opposed to co-education, which has been the norm for most. There was a real reason for separatist programs--women grew in unimaginable ways when they didn't have to deal with the male/female issues to which we have all been socialized.

All of these issues raise the question: If discontinuity is a myth and women don't have special needs, if the ultimate aim is equal integration of women into a world of new norms--do we in fact need separate programs?

Rice points out that the women who were raised in the Fifties and traveled through the Sixties when most of the rules were challenged are caught in the middle of the turmoil. Our Women's Programs have been admittedly remedial, and the question we need to ask now is, what about younger women? Will they have the same needs as today's women or has the new world arrived for them during their formative years so that our current approaches may be irrelevant? The data isn't in yet, but evidence indicates that the new world still requires a rather jolting entry sometime in young adulthood. Peer pressure in adolescence and the preoccupation with present goals "often nullifies attempts by adults to increase consciousness about future choices." (Rice, 1976, p. 248). Institutional and organizational barriers to young couples who do wish to implement shared role lifestyles abound--clearly, it is easier said than done. Our question: What ought we to do to create a preventative model?

I don't have the answers to any of these questions--I know only that I believe today, as I did in 1973, that our world will be a richer place if all people, men and women, have the freedom to pursue their dreams and utilize their talents as they, as individuals, see fit. The place that CEW--as a movement, as a process--has in creating that enabling environment has been significant. What it will be in the future may very well depend on how each of you answers those questions.

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by

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"Needs Assessment Strategies and Techniques"

by

Dr. Malcolm Knowles

The early stages of the development of the technology of assessing needs for learning have been fairly mechanistic in their orientation. I think this is probably understandable, natural, and probably necessary in starting a new endeavor--to take it in its simplest form. But I think a new dimension has been emerging in the last five, maybe ten, years regarding needs assessment. That is looking at the phenomenon, the problem, the undertaking, in much more dynamic and organismic terms. Therefore, the development of needs assessment could be viewed in two halves, the first represents the old which is more mechanistic, the second half represents this new organismic view.

There are three kinds of needs it seems to me that have to be taken into account in developing an adult education program. The first, in regard to both time and importance, is the need of the individual. The second, which has to be taken into account if you want to maintain the support of your organization, is the need of the organization that is sponsoring the adult education program. And the third, if you want to maintain good public relations and support from the general community, is what could be called either societal needs or community needs.

Let me start with the individual needs. As you identify a clientele that you would like to serve, it seems to me that you have to go and start finding out from them what they perceive to be their needs. These are often termed felt needs. What are their felt needs? What needs are they aware of? The simplest way to get at their self-perceived needs is to ask them what they need or what they're interested in, through a questionnaire or interest finder (a special form of questionnaire), or through interviews, group discussions, etc. The risk here is that you will get from them statements of their needs that they either think are safe to give you or they give you the things that they think are good for others. There is a classic experiment that demonstrates this, one by a man named Hudson back in 1935. A way of reducing this risk is to insert three columns for them to check in any list of activities or needs that you give them. If you ask them to check in one column headed "a good idea," then they'll check a lot of those ("Oh yes, that would be a good idea."). Mostly they're getting out of their system what they think would be good for other people. Then if you have them check a second column headed "am interested," you'll get fewer checks. (Those are the ones "well maybe.") And then the third column would be headed "will enroll," and there you may get no checks or only one or two. It is a device for screening out the more publicly safe and other-directed needs.

However, you still are going to get from those kinds of devices (questionnaires, interviews, group discussions, and so on) only the needs that come from their heads-- the intellectual needs, the needs they "think" they have or that are immediately in their consciousness. And very often these are rather superficial needs. One of the most potent of the strategies for getting beneath the superficial needs is some adaptation of the psychometric device of the projective test. At its simplest level, an instrument or an interview schedule can be devised in which you ask the individual to project himself or herself into a situation and then say, "Now, where do you feel inadequate in that situation?" or "What would you want to beef yourself up in, in order to be more comfortable in that situation?" I remember when I was program chairman for a public affairs

committee in a church group in the 40's, we had done a straight checklist kind of thing and built a program on the basis of what they had given us and very few people came--maybe 10 or 15 people. So I thought I'm not getting at what they're really interested in having us do. So I got up another kind of questionnaire and asked them questions like this: "What headline would you like most to see in the paper tomorrow?" We got a lot of fantasy to that. This was in '47 or '48 and the headline that they would most like to see was "Stalin Assassinated." And this was a church group. But it was right after the War. So the lead-off in the next series was "Will Your Sons Have to Fight Russia in Their Lifetime?" We were overflooded and had to turn people away.

A more sophisticated example of a projective technique was developed by a couple of nurses who were my students at Boston University. One was a candid camera buff. They worked at the same hospital and they teamed up on the project. They were not satisfied that they were really getting at what the nurses at their hospital needed in the way of in-service education. For a week they wandered around the halls of the hospital and the candid camera bug kept snapping pictures of nurses in various situations--standing, getting chewed out by a tall doctor; spilling a bedpan in the kitchen or something; and there were some pretty gruesome ones. I recall they took about 300 or more pictures in the course of the week and then reduced them to 52. They had several criteria by which they selected the ones they hunched the nurses would be least likely to feel adequate in. They took these 52 pictures to the nurses, sat them down at a table and said, "Would you go through these pictures and put them into three piles. In the left hand pile put the pictures that represent the situations in which you would feel absolutely secure--no question that you would be able to handle the situation. Then in the right hand column put the situations in which you would just be scared to death, very insecure, you know you wouldn't be able to handle it the way you would want to. In the middle pile put the ones that you're not too sure about." What they got was a curve of distribution--the two end piles were the smallest and the middle pile was the largest but there still were substantial numbers of them in every case in the right hand pile. They wrote the number of each pile on the back of the picture and after having about 25 or 30 nurses do this, a good sample of the total population, they came out with a clear-cut picture of what the situations were that nurses most commonly felt inadequate in and from that were able to rather easily reduce the kinds of knowledge and skills and values and attitudes that they would need to get in order to feel more adequate in the situation. Then they mounted an in-service education program based on those findings and where previously they had very poor attendance now they had just an excellent attendance. If you're going to try to find out what people really need, try to get beneath the surface through some sort of probing or putting them in situations to get at deeper level needs.

One other technique for getting at individual needs becomes clear with the following example. One of my students a long time ago was on staff of the adult education program of the YWCA of Chicago. She went around and interviewed librarians in the main library and all the branches in Chicago and asked "What are the non-fiction books that people are checking out most frequently right now, this fall?" At that point, in the 40's or early 50's, there was a run on positive thinking, building a positive point of view toward life. I think Norman Vincent Peale was strong at that period. So she built her next program around those things that people were reading and found it a very accurate index of what people were interested in. Other students have interviewed people like the police to find out where people are getting into trouble most commonly. One thing that came out very strongly was the need for better driver education. Another group to interview is employers to find out what are the common causes of people losing their jobs in the company. And one of the things that almost always comes out from that is poor human relations skills--that they can't get along with their co-workers or their bosses --and many institutions have developed and offered programs dealing with human relations skills.

The second kind of needs are those of the organization--the organization's felt needs, or in other words what the organization feels their people should learn. Here the devices that are most commonly used are the same kinds of devices--interviewing the managers or supervisors. Another is examining the records of the organization that give some indication of where people aren't performing well in the organization, such as productivity records. Accident records are a very common source of good information to organizations about what their employees need, a rising accident rate suggesting the need for some safety education. Most employees will not identify that as a need they have. Accidents are always caused by the other guy, and so it's an organizational need for good safety practice to be followed. You have to get that from the organization's sources. Another very useful device that many corporations are using, and a number of government agencies too, is performance appraisal procedures. The most extensive one now is the management by objectives process in which the manager or the supervisor sits down with one or more workers and together they map out a set of work goals for the next year for each individual. Following that, the supervisor will ask, "Well, now what do you need to learn in order to accomplish those work goals?" They use the performance appraisal system as a sort of diagnostic procedure for getting at the learning needs of employees. Certainly another fruitful or productive source of information for many organizations is the feedback they get from the people they are serving, such as the customers.

I'm impressed with how many motels and hotels I stay in that have check boxes with slips that say "tell us how we served you." I've filled a number of those out and have never gotten a response. If you get data from individuals about the organizational needs, be sure to feed it back to them. It's a kind of a contract. If I take the time and energy to give you the information, then you have an obligation to let me know what the general result was.

The third source of data has to do with societal or community needs. Here we can define community or society in a number of ways. It could be the global society. What does our civilization in the year 1979 need? Or it can be a geographical community--what does West Albuquerque need? Or it could be a professional community--what does the nursing profession need? What does the engineering profession need? One way to get data about these kinds of social system needs is to ask key people. For example, when I first went to Chicago to start a new adult education program there in 1946, one of the first groups I interviewed were managing editors of the daily papers. I found out more from them than I did from any other single group. What were people doing in Chicago that wasn't good for them? Or that was hurting the quality of life in Chicago? I suppose politicians of certain sorts would be good sources of data. I imagine that aldermen or council members would be good sources of data. Where are things not going right in the community that we, the university extension division, for example, might do something about? Or as regards a professional community, ask the leaders of the local, state, or national societies--even the clients of the professionals--people who are in a position to be fairly objective and have a broad picture, a broad view of what's needed. The medical profession has received some very reliable feedback from the clients of their profession regarding some of the needs for medical education in the courts. Malpractice suits have been very convincing to physicians and, as a result, in the last three years there have been more continuing medical education programs across North America than in all previous history of medicine in this country.

Now you run into a problem at this point because if you've done a good job of surveying the needs, you're going to come up with many more than you could possibly serve through a program. What you have to do is to screen these needs through some sieves that you've constructed for yourself such as the sieve of the purpose of our organization. If I'm in an organization the purpose of which is to promote safe auto driving and somebody comes in and wants a course on reckless auto driving, then that would conflict with my

purpose and I would screen that need out. Or you have to ask would this need fit into the philosophy of this particular organization. For example, when I was the director of the YMCA adult education program in Chicago, right after the War, I remember clearly having a group of half a dozen returned veterans come in to see me. They said, "We've been scouting the job market and we have learned that the best openings for blokes like us are in bartending and so we'd like a course in bartending. Can you get up a course for us?" And I said," Well, you know I drink myself so I have nothing against bartending; in fact, I value it very highly. And it's a very lucrative and respectable occupation, but the YMCA doesn't feel that bartending is part of its philosophical value system. Let me call a friend of mine up the street who runs another adult education program in an agency that would have no problem with that." And they got their course in bartending. The feasibility of these needs in terms of the resources available is another sieve.

A friend of mine, who is Dean of Continuing Education at the University of California-Riverside, told me he had a group of people come to see him from one of the industrial plants nearby who wanted a course in nuclear physics that would require having access to a nuclear accelerator. The University didn't own an accelerator, so he had to tell them, "Well, we can't give the course. It wouldn't do any good to have a lecturer come down from Cal-Tech or some place and talk about it. You need to have an accelerator." What they arranged was for Cal-Tech to give the course and for Cal-Tech to send one of their football buses down on an off football day, and pick up 20-25 people to take them up and give the course. You cannot include in your program needs for which you don't have resources. By means of these sieves, you start squeezing out certain of these needs and you end up with a manageable number which then become your program objectives.

This is a kind of status quo system. It is looking at needs from the point of view of what is now. It seems to me that this probably was an appropriate way to think about needs assessment during the first half of my career in adult education because things were relatively stable as compared with the way they are now. But we're fast getting into an era of accelerating change that is causing people to have needs that they don't feel now but if they don't meet the needs now, they're going to be obsolete when it's too late to meet the needs. We're in an era in which adult educators have an obligation to find ways of inducing needs or of arousing people's awareness of the needs that they're not aware of. Paulo Friere, the great Brazilian adult educator, called this "consciousness raising" and he has based a whole strategy of adult education on the starting point of adult education being consciousness raising. Well, what kinds of things do people need, do people's consciousness need to be raised about, and how do you go about it? One thing that all adults need to have their consciousness raised about is that they very quickly learn how to learn. The tragedy is that our traditional model of schooling has been based upon the proposition that the function of school is to teach. Our whole educational enterprise has been geared to the strategies of teaching on the assumption that if we just transmit enough information, the student will know what to do with it, and it will also last them all their life. That may have been understandable, if not noble, in an era of relative stability.

An invaluable book that addresses itself essentially to this issue is Beyond the Stable State by Donald A. Schon published by W. W. Norton in 1971. Schon's central thesis is that we are now beyond the stable state, and so all of the social institutions we have that are geared to maintaining stability, including schools, are now dysfunctional. We must now invent new social institutions, including new forms of schooling, that will prepare people not just to adapt to change but to engage in change and to promote constructive change. The one competency that individuals must have in order to be able to do that is competency in self-directed learning, in being self-directed learners. I think one of the critical unfelt needs that people have when they come in to us is to learn that learning does not consist of just being taught. That may be one way of learning but it is probably the least efficient way. Therefore they need to have the

skills that are required to diagnose their own needs for learning, to develop their own plans for learning, to identify the most available resources for their learning, and then assess whether they've accomplished their learning objectives or not. One of the unfelt needs is the impending obsolescence of mankind because mankind is not able to keep up with the conditions of the unstable state. This almost becomes a societal need but it is an individual need for each person to learn how to take the initiative in his learning.

I think there is an organizational need of this sort, too. Organizations typically have thought of their training function, their personnel development or human resources development function, as consisting of what the training department or the staff development department does in the way of seminars, courses, institutes, workshops, etc. If I walk into a typical organization and ask, "What human resources development is going on in your company?" they'll point to a chart on the wall of the director of training that lists all of the activities that the training department is putting on. Then if I ask, "What other resources for learning are there in your company?" it draws a long pause and throws them for a loop. Sometimes a person will say another resource is all of the supervisory and management personnel in the company. The traditional managers think the function of their supervisors and managers is to control subordinates, not to develop them. There's a whole new area of supervisory and management development that is just beginning to be perceived as needed, namely, to teach supervisors how to be people developers as well as product or service producers. Another source they often think of is the resources of their peers, the people who are working side by side who can help each other learn, if there are appropriate strategies or mechanisms for that happening. It doesn't happen automatically. The daily experience of each individual is a resource for learning, if it is analyzed. But it is not a resource for learning if it is not looked at analytically. Certainly many resources are out in the environment around the organization, in the community or in other organizations. When I challenge the management of an organization to start thinking of that organization as a system of learning resources, all sorts of things start going around in their minds and all sorts of new ideas start flowing.

Many corporations and other institutions are relying heavily on contract learning, which is a way of helping each individual identify needs for learning and then translating these needs into learning objectives. Once these learning objectives are established, the company helps identify and encourages the use of the available resources. Finally, the employer can measure his/her success later by deciding if the objectives were accomplished. The learning contract is a vehicle for mobilizing and making accessible to the individual all of these rich varieties of resources. Well, this is one of the points that Don Schon makes very strongly, that if society is to survive through the 21st Century, it is going to have to think of all social institutions as learning communities and it is going to have to organize ways for these learning communities to facilitate the learning and the constant renewal of all the personnel for which the organization has responsibility.

Suggested Reading List

by

Malcolm S. Knowles

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"Counseling the Adult Learner"

by

Dr. Violet Malone

I would like to share with you some ideas about counseling the adult learner with particular emphasis on the role of the counselor and the counseling function of the adult educator. This topic is receiving more attention in the literature on adult learning as individuals spend time determining the need for and direction of their personal growth plans. My plan is to focus attention on the following four aspects of the topic, "Counseling the Adult Learner": counseling--a process in adult education, major issues and strategies related to counseling adult learners, the adult educator's role in counseling, and concerns for the future.

Counseling should be considered an educational process; one in which individuals are aided or aid themselves to select options which they feel are appropriate for their life situation. In a comment on education, Stephen K. Bailey remarked: "Education at its best, results in a sophisticated understanding of the unhappy consequences of selecting our options lightly..." Adult learners are constantly involved in selecting options which provide them with some sense of satisfaction with their life experiences. The discussion on the levels of satisfaction becomes another area of study. More and more adults are seeking information about the options for handling their life experiences and once they are aware of the options, there is a need to utilize choice-making or decision-making skills in the selection of the appropriate ones as they view them. It is in the area of information-seeking and decision-making that adult educators can assume a counseling role to facilitate the educational process.

A question frequently asked in regard to this issue is "Shouldn't counseling be left in the hands of the professional counselor?" The answer is ideally, yes. However, few schools of Counselor Education include academic preparation or practicums related to adult learners. Counselor education is geared to elementary/secondary school children or to the clinical psychology approach with adults. Almost none of these professional schools include courses of adult learning and development in their recommended or required programs of study.

The situation is changing. Recently, counselor educators and supervisors prepared a position paper which included the following statements:

1. Counselor preparation should train counselors for major leadership functions in the provision of career guidance for children, youth and adults.

2. Counselor preparation should provide counselors with skills in organizational development and the change process in order that they may more effectively implement career education and career guidance in schools and agencies.

Further, the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) members endorsed a 13-point position paper regarding the changing role of counselors, which contained implica-

tions for counselor functions and preparation. Development in career education programs and work with both children and adults would help in the following ways:

1. A change toward greater counselor involvement in the business-labor-industrial community as well as in the home environment.

2. A change toward emphasizing career education in lifestyle terms...

3. A change toward using the concept of work as a means of helping students acquire self-understanding and personal meaningfulness.

These statements (those of eleven listed) provide a framework for understanding why counseling adult learners may receive more attention from professional counselors in the near future. The point is that the individuals involved in the preparation of professional counselors and those involved in the practice of this profession are beginning to pay special attention to the counseling needs of adults.

Even with the increased interest from professionals to develop competencies in working with adult learners, the manpower needed cannot be supplied from professional schools alone. Therefore, counseling behavior skills need to become part of a set of skills adult educators acquire as they prepare for their work with adult learners. Now, I want to take some time to discuss counseling as a process in adult education.

The following quotation, "Counseling is a process by which a person is assisted to behave in a more rewarding manner," is the basis for the definition which I use to describe the counseling process in adult education. Counseling is a process in which an individual or individuals develop(s) a helping relationship for the purpose of stimulating personal growth in one or more of the participating individuals. This definition is based on four assumptions: There is a 1) provider, 2) learner, 3) setting, and 4) process. This is the framework I will use to describe the counseling function as it might apply to adult education.

Generally speaking, a discussion of an educational process begins with several statements about the learner. However, in this discussion, let's begin with that component which we have more information with which to draw for the development of the process--ourselves--the providers. Think about yourself and the roles you play in your work with the adult learner. What are the similarities and differences in what you see about yourself and what you see in the adult learner? I plan these into four categories of self-images: Your Public, Private, Blind and Potential for growth. Your public image is one in which you and others view you as having a set of competencies to perform tasks related to your role. If you have the appropriate skills, you are comfortable with your attitude and ability to perform the tasks, you will behave in such a way that others feel comfortable about your ability to act in your role. Your private image includes factors which you feel will take away from your effectiveness in the role if others knew these factors about you. Here, it is your own internal system which inhibits or enhances your ability to work in the role. The more you build trust in self and others, the more the private factors are removed as barriers to effectiveness or are revealed to become part of your public image. Your blind image includes those factors of which you are not aware but others do observe; e.g., your mannerisms, the way you "come across to others." Here is where we need to use a feedback system to alert us to those behaviors we cannot or do not observe in ourselves. Learning to give and receive feedback can be an invaluable tool in helping one to observe his or her blind image. Your potential image is usually one which neither you nor others can "see." However, one must believe that the potential for growth is in self and others if choice/decision-making about life experiences is to occur. These same images are ones which adult learners face also, and understanding them in yourself can help you to better understand them in others. Also, it is important to understand your style of interaction with others.

Now, let's move on to the adult learner. As we work with the adult learner, there are elements in our lifestyle which need to be considered. These elements affect the way learners approach and carry out the tasks related to a learning event. These same elements influence the way we act as providers of educational programs. They include: economics, demography, knowledge/beliefs, communication/socialization, and the social structure. If one took the studies related to Tough's The Adults Learning Project and applied the elements to the learners and their projects, we might find that these elements had a major influence on the way in which they carried out their learning projects. Therefore, in a counseling role, it is important to understand these elements as they are related to learning and to participation in adult education.

In each of the case situations, it is important to understand the educational setting with its purposes, missions, major thrusts, formal and informal organizational processes. The educational setting can be a major force in determining whether an adult will prefer one source of information over another. Therefore, it is of value for adult educators to know the barriers as well as the enhancing features of an educational setting (Toombs, 1978). These features include procedural, environmental and institutional ones. Institutions are developing delivery systems which take into account the above features and the adult lifestyles in a community setting. Because of this consideration, we find community-based counseling services, computer-assisted counseling services on the job, telephone counseling for home-based adults, and peer counseling in self-help groups.

Now, it is important to view the counseling process in regard to my earlier definition. The counseling process includes three main functions. First, a climate must be set which requires participants to exhibit behavior which is conducive to a free and open discussion of the situation. This is both a non-verbal and verbal communication process. Without this step, clarification of expectations is difficult to acquire. Second, the counselor and the person with whom he or she is counseling must set mutually agreed upon objectives. These objectives are related to the helping relationship process and not to the counseling outcomes. Here, one clarifies what can and cannot happen in the session. In one of my cases, both the woman whom I was counseling and I agreed that during the session, we would explore her current options for graduate school as these related to her work. She listed the information she wanted, (graduate school options), but she had expressed some broader needs of which this first information was a minor part of her concern. Objectives were modified during the session. Third, a process for solving the problem, making a decision, or taking some action must be established. There is evidence to support the fact that adults with more education seek out ways to continue their education (Cross, 1977). These same individuals tend to be information seekers for their decision-making process. They are seeking options for learning as opposed to solutions to problems of learning. Individuals with a limited educational background tend to seek education as a solution to a problem situation. Their problem-solving process is one of immediate solution from "limited" options. In both cases, a range of options should be available. However, in the first one, the learner is assisted to explore alternatives with the emphasis on information gathering. Computer-assisted counseling, peer relationships, information systems are useful modes. Usually, the one-to-one relationship with a counselor is used as a way to confirm or verify the individual's decision. In the other case, the individual may not be aware of how much control (locus of control) he or she has in the decision-making process (Rotter, 1969) and also the need for a solution is so immediate that any attempt to use a process is viewed as a barrier to problem resolution.

In addition, I have used an instrument, "Reaction to Group Situation" (RTGS, Thelan, 1969) with over a 1,000-member extension faculty, basic education teachers, counselors, administrators, community college faculty, volunteers and nursing administrators in the VA hospital (Medical District 17). I've found that on the dimension described as dependency, individuals engaged in human services programs tend to rely on external authority for

direction as opposed to using their own external resources for work with others. When this dimension is discussed with individuals, they support the findings by giving concrete experiences in which they have exhibited the dependency behavior and were unaware of it. In general, their own behavior with learners helped to increase dependency in the learner. Again looking at the case situations, can you visualize how easy dependency can be developed in a counseling relationship? Consequently, the counselor-educator should use a problem-solving process that helps to reduce the immediate stress and provides learners with skills in decision-making. In general, counseling is an educational process based on a mutually desired helping relationship. This process includes a provider, a learner, a setting and a process which is geared to problem-solving, decision or choice-making.

Now that I have discussed the process of adult counseling, I will turn to the major issues and strategies related to counseling. An important resource for this discussion is Schlossberg, Troll and Leibowitz' book, Perspectives on Counseling Adults: Issues and Skills (1978). It is an excellent reference and over the years they have emphasized the need for counseling programs with adult learners. The authors identify five issues and several strategies related to the issues, however, most of my emphasis will be placed on these strategies.

The first issue deals with "Recognition and Control of Age Bias." In other words, it involves examining age stereotyping and understanding the social clock. The counseling implications are found in recognizing that we have age bias and we should practice ways to change our attitudes. A listing of adult activities with spaces to identify appropriate ages for activity to take place is a useful counseling tool. As educators, we should test ourselves first and then use the tool to help learners view any age biases they are using which act as barriers to looking at options. This issue is a good one for group and peer counseling sessions.

The second strategy is "Understanding Adult Development." It examines the roles, functions and tasks related to adult life. The counseling implications are found in understanding the stresses related to changes in life situations and determining the amount of control one has in making the changes. The authors suggest the use of several instruments including the "Social Readjustment Rating Scale," the "Locus of Control Scale," and I include the "Fundamental Interpersonal Reactions Observation - Behavior" (FIRO-B: Schutz). The strategies also might include some interaction using role play, videotapes to surface ideas and examine behavior. Computer-assisted counseling services could provide much of the assessment information.

The third issue is "Applying Knowledge and Developing Counseling Skills." This involves examining the various settings in which adults perform as adults and using process skills to aid in decision-making. Helping adults to analyze where they are in a given time and situation requires one to use an analytical process. I find the use of a force field analysis form to be very helpful. The learner is asked to look at the forces which affect the decision as those related to his social system and then he is asked to sort out the forces into two categories: 1) those which enhance the decision and 2) those which inhibit the decision. This discussion leads to the determination of which ones can or should be shifted for the appropriate decision to be made. The counselor's role is one of facilitating the discussion. The facilitating skills include listening and responding. However, you are warned not to use these items as a sole determinant of an individual's situation. Therefore, consider carefully this next issue.

The fourth issue centers around "Planning Programs." This entails examining program plans to aid individuals to make decisions. There are individualized plans in which a variety of delivery modes may be employed. You apply the same principles of planning to one's life situation as you would planning for a conference, seminar or workshop.

As a counselor-educator, I work with learners to focus on the immediate picture within a larger framework of life planning. The learner and I usually conclude the session with a written self-contract (when appropriate) and I ask if they will tell me how the decision worked. It is difficult for some adults to ask for help and this statement is made to suggest that "no strings are attached -- to our work together." The counseling session is a planned experience with form and function.

The third aspect to which I would like to turn my attention is the role of the adult educator in counseling. The adult educator is a facilitator of self-directed learning as it relates to the counseling process. However, when we say this, we assume adults know how to be self-directed learners. Thus, as adult educators we sometimes become abdicators in our style of interaction with the learner. We develop an "I'll answer the question if asked" attitude, yet adults may not know the questions to ask! Your role then is to develop competencies which enhance the learner's ability to take and maintain control over his life decisions. These competencies which Malone and Miller outline in their book, The Guidance Function and Roles in an Adult Education Program, include:

A. Knowledge needed by the Provider:

1. How do adults learn?
2. Why adults join others in the learning process?
3. What forces affect group learning?
4. What are the effects of one's teaching/leadership style on the group's behavior?
5. In what ways do groups behave as communities within the classroom setting?
6. Meaning of self-directed learning.
7. How can the needs of both the individual and group be identified and satisfied?
8. What are the effects of cooperation and competition on the individual and the group's progress?
9. What effect do peer relationships have upon the learning environment?
10. What are the communication patterns within the individual or group which enhance the learning experience?
11. What effects do the economic, social, psychological, and emotional characteristics of adults have on their lifestyles while in their classroom situations?
12. What are the components and uses of the program development process in counseling?
13. Available resources for change.

B. Skills needed by the Provider:

1. Ability to guide learners in goal setting.
2. Ability to use problem solving/decision-making process.
3. Ability to affect positive "classroom" climate.
4. Ability to communicate effectively with individuals as well as with groups of individuals.
5. Ability to translate human relations and group dynamics processes into "classroom" practices.
6. Ability to carry out learning experiences in a sequential manner.
7. Ability to maintain an information and retrieval system which is of use to learner and staff.

C. Attitudes needed by the Provider:

1. Belief that adults can learn.
2. Belief that adults are responsible for their own learning.
3. Belief that adults want a "good life."
4. Belief that adults can learn from others in a group situation.
5. Belief that risking new ideas is a growth process.
6. Belief that satisfaction in the teaching-learning process is possible for both the learner and the teacher.
7. Belief that learning can and does take place outside classroom and institution settings.

I would hope that graduate programs in adult education would provide a basis for the development of these competencies through academic course work and practicums. I will now conclude with a few remarks about the future.

Concern for the future becomes for me, direction for the future. I realize the counseling component in education is not the big picture, but it is a neglected one which affects all aspects of the teaching-learning process in adult education. You should note also, that my concerns for the future are focused on research with practical application. I stress this because there is literature which speaks to the needs of adults but so little which focus attention on counseling strategies within the field of adult education with practical implications for program and staff development. Tough (1978) and the Advisory Panel on Research Needs in Lifelong Learning During Adulthood (1978) have suggested a list of concerns which I feel have implications for counseling adults.

1. More research and application of studies on the characteristics of adult educators who perform the counseling function effectively.

2. Develop professional counselors who have education and experience in adult learning/development.

3. Development of tools (hardware, software) which provide learners with an assessment of their own situation.

4. Self-directed learning projects with information centers available for decision-making. Creating of staff development programs as an on-going activity to help adult educators build and maintain competencies in teaching-counseling function.

5. More research with application which describes the support system needed by the on-going learner not in an institutional "classroom" setting. More description data about categories of learners in correctional settings, middle-class, racial minorities which should have implications for community-based counseling programs.

6. More attention paid to a counseling support system for part-time teachers and self-help group providers.

7. Introduction of and upgrading the counseling components in labor related programs such as CETA.

I want to conclude with a thought which might act as a summary of my talk. Adult educators in the counseling role are great LOVERS. They Listen, Observe, Verify (feedback), Empathize, provide Recognition, and find Satisfaction in their life situations. To what extent are you a great LOVER?

REFERENCE AND SUGGESTED READING LIST

by

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"Marketing and Promotion Strategies and Techniques"

by

Dr. Stanley Grabowski

The focus of this paper addresses four questions in relation to continuing education: what it is like now, why it is that way, what it might be like or could be, and how it should be done. First, it is necessary to identify what it is like now. Those who are in the field of adult and continuing education know all too well that this field has been the step-child of education for all too long. It finally has come of age. It has come of age to the point where now it is not only self-supporting, but it is also supporting many of the other areas of higher education. There are many institutions of higher education across the United States that would be out of business today if it were not for their continuing education arm. In fact, there are many institutions that are increasingly turning to continuing education to support some of the other programs that they have. The truth of the matter is that adult and continuing education is booming. It is big business. And from all indications, it will continue to grow and expand well into the 21st century. Depending on who is counting, this year there are probably between 25 and 60 million adults who are actively engaged in some form of adult and continuing education. That is in addition to what Allen Tough would call self-directed learners. That is a lot of people and this trend will continue.

As a result, many of our colleagues are becoming very complacent; they have accepted the attitude that people are breaking the doors down to take courses in adult and continuing education and, indeed, in many places they are. Coupled with that is the phenomenon that many state legislatures are beginning to mandate continuing education as one of the conditions for relicensure in many of the professions. There isn't a state in the Union that already does not have existing legislation mandating continuing education in a number of professions. And probably some time in the next decade most of the professions will have some form of relicensure with a condition of continuing education. Many of our colleagues in continuing education can see the cash register ringing with all these students coming in to pursue continuing education in their professions as well as in the leisure activity area, and many of these educators tend to sit back and say "We don't have to do anything to market our program because it will continue to do well." The fact of the matter is that the most successful adult and continuing education programs are those that go after their clients. But even if the clients kept pounding on the doors to come in, how long will that last? There are many people in continuing education who say, "After all we're educators, not business people. We don't want to use the tactics that the business people use in marketing." However, there are many people in the business world who have more integrity than some educators. The tactics they use are proven tactics which produce. I wish that more educators used businesslike tactics. Besides that, more and more of our educational institutions are big businesses even though they don't like to be called that. Some of our colleagues think there is a certain distaste to using the techniques of big business. Let them know that like big business, they, the continuing educators, will be out of business unless they use the marketing techniques that business has developed. You see, marketing continuing education is not really for the sake of solvency. As I see it, we are coming to the point where it's going to be very much a question of survival. If business and industrial complexes go bankrupt because they have failed to observe their marketing, so too will educational institutions eventually go out of business because they failed to respond

to client needs. They also fail to serve their clients adequately. "Marketing and all the attendant Madison Avenue techniques, when appropriately utilized, can be one of the finest means available to us for the advancement--the growth and progress--of continuing education." That is a statement made by Phillip Frandson, Director of Continuing Education at UCLA. He knows what he is talking about because he has the largest continuing education operation in the world. By every measure, he is a success in his program. He is an example of one who uses the most refined tools that the marketing people can give us. The Wall Street Journal (Dec. 26, 1978) carried a front page lead article whose headline read, "Its Monopoly Eroding, AT&T Begins to Learn the Art of Marketing." Ma Bell has launched a vigorous program of actively marketing their products. Now if Ma Bell thinks it is important enough to go out and actively try to get more people involved in some of the services AT&T gives in selling the new kinds of telephones because its market is threatened by erosion, who are we, adult and continuing educators, to think that we can sit back complacently and not go out after clients? Two educators in university extension (Buchanan and Barkdale, 1974: 44-45) recently made a statement that deserves attention. They said:

> The marketing culture today more than ever before needs to be fully understood and practiced by extension administrators. They need to become master craftsmen of marketing techniques in order to effectively manage the transactions they are responsible for. This is becoming more essential as the external pressures increase in the extension environment. For example, the fluctuations of Federal funds, the push for accountability, the growing demands for educational opportunities from extension's public, and the entry of many private organizations into the extension's field.

Even if we were to concede for the moment that the demands for adult and continuing education will continue to escalate in the near future, we would be tapping only a small segment of the potential market. There are many more adults who have not participated in adult/continuing education at all, but who would do so if we marketed effectively. I am fully aware of Allen Tough's thesis that practically every adult is involved in some type of self-directed learning; however, many individuals still participate in adult and continuing education under institutional auspices.

I am not advocating that we do away with institutional programs because some people prefer that kind of continuing education for a variety of reasons. There are some things that a person cannot do in self-directed learning. I don't know how a course on group dynamics as a self-directed learner could be given. There will be some people who will be self-directed learners and in addition will participate in institutional programs. All of us at some time feel a need for that kind of participative arrangement in addition to self-directed learning. I am saying that enough people are not participating in adult/continuing education programs. There are many people in our society who should be participating but are not doing so because we have failed them. When I say "we," I mean adult educators. I am talking about the educational institutions and about society in general.

All the participation studies on adult education show conclusively that there is a definite kind of person who participates in such programs. Every study that I have seen in the last 15 years shows without exception that people who come from the higher socio-economic strata are the ones who are most likely to participate in adult and continuing education. In a sense, we are educating the educated. (I am using the word educated here to mean schooled.) What we are doing with many of our continuing education programs is catering to the middle class. We are catering to those who would come to us if we did no marketing. I like the quotation that is on my desk from Aldous Huxley. It is there to keep me on my toes and it says, "It is not very difficult to persuade people to do

what they are all longing to do." Many of my colleagues don't like me because I'm their conscience. Whenever I meet one of my colleagues in continuing education, I usually ask two things: First, "What are you doing about your own continuing education?" And second, "What type of programs are you running in your continuing education program?" Invariably I get a typical response to the second question from those who are programming in continuing education: "I must be doing something right, I'm packing them in semester after semester." "How do you know you're doing something right?" "Well, the numbers show it." What the numbers indicate is that there are people out there who are responding to what is offered. It doesn't necessarily mean that's what they want. They come because that's all that's available. There is no guarantee that their needs are being met.

Marketing, according to some people in the field, is more than just selling and promoting programs. Marketing means that we reach out to meet the needs of our clients and potential clients. But we are not reaching a large segment of the population that we should be reaching. All the studies show us quite conclusively that we have failed to draw into our programs those who are from the lower socioeconomic strata, and we're not doing much to attract them. Do you know why? Here's one reason offered by Bob Burrett from UCLA. He says, "Being self-supporting skews the audience. Large numbers are from high income areas. We can tell by their zip codes. We would like to bring science and literacy to the disadvantaged, for example, but it's difficult because they have no money. We would also like to do some small, interesting courses; but there are not enough people who would come. The bottom line prevents us from meeting the continuing education needs of some segments of society" (Watkins, 1976:9). That is a sad commentary. You see marketing is not all selling and advertising. Someone said that marketing reflects the concept that the successful organization is one that is fully responsible to its clientele. I submit that continuing educators are not fully responsible to their clientele, and I am as much to blame as my colleagues.

In order to get an understanding of why it is that the people from the lower socioeconomic strata are not coming to adult and continuing education we must look at what constitutes barriers to their participation. We are very fortunate because there have been a number of studies in recent years that have addressed this issue. One of them was a doctoral student at the University of Chicago by the name of Dao. The Educational Testing Service did a national study looking at this, and the State of New York did a regional study two years ago. When you look at all these studies and put them together, you can crystallize all the reasons, all the barriers to participation, particularly by the people I'm talking about, into three general categories. The first of these I would label the institutional barriers. These represent those elements over which the institution has direct control even though some of these elements may go beyond the institution. For example, the cost of courses, the lack of adaptation to an individual's special study situation, lack of relevant courses, lack of adequate parking facilities, indifference to problems of adult learners--such as, child care, lack of awareness, and poor public transportation facilities. These are the barriers for which the institution is responsible.

The second category includes personal barriers. These are the ones that an individual sets up for him or herself. Some of these are of the individual's making whereas others are contributed by outside factors. Incidentally, these factors overlap to some extent so that some barriers are not only institutional but also personal and social. Here are some examples of personal barriers: lack of time, lack of self-confidence, lack of interest towards education in general (what I call the Archie Bunker syndrome), lack of money, lack of access, lack of support services, family constraints, and so on.

Thirdly, there are social barriers. These are those elements which stem primarily from societal forces and pressures. Here are some examples: peer attitude toward adult learning, unsuitable working hours, transportation difficulties, economic constraints, need for child care, and so on. I suggest that if we could overcome some of these barriers or help people overcome them, we would increase dramatically the participation on the part of those adults who need that participation the most, and who are probably getting the least.

In a sense, marketing continuing education is motivating people. I'm well aware that you really don't motivate someone because that's inner-directed, coming from within the individual. However, one can motivate people by removing the barriers and by setting up the environment and the climate in such a way that people are more liable to participate. It means, in a sense, that we strengthen a person's awareness of what is being offered as well as the features of what we have to give. And believe me, we are not doing that enough. Go to any community where there is an adult and continuing education program and stop the first 10 people on the street, and half of them don't know that the program exists or what that program offers.

One of the individuals who is probably the best qualified to talk about the business of promoting and marketing is John O'Toole, who heads one of the best known agencies. He says, "You must gain the eyes of the people you want to reach or you haven't a chance of winning their minds." If you don't get to potential participants in some way and make them aware of what's happening, there's no way that they will participate.

The studies on participation and motivation of adult learners taken together give us a long list of reasons why people attend. When you boil them all down, you will find that convenience is the single most important aspect of why people attend a given course or program. Convenience of time, convenience of location, convenience of cost, and convenience of transportation are more important to most adults than the existence of a first-choice subject. Many adults will settle for a second choice as long as it is available conveniently. Someone in Boston who runs a highly successful continuing education program has told me the reason his program is so successful is because it is accessible by public transportation. His institution is on the subway line and has one of the largest parking facilities of any educational institution in the State of Massachusetts. And every year when he does an evaluation survey the respondents say that parking and accessibility are the main reasons they attend that institution.

When you market continuing education, you have to be original, creative, imaginative, and flexible. This means you have to monitor and evaluate your offerings all the time. You have to have the courage to add new programs but more so the courage to cut out old programs. There was a study done of 90 universities which showed that while 86 percent of the continuing education administrators routinely added new programs and new courses, only 68 percent ever considered eliminating old courses from the program.

I want to be very practical in suggesting ways in which improvements in marketing can be made in continuing education. I want to do this by addressing that which will bring the people in. I'm talking about motivation--I am assuming, of course, that the program itself is of high quality. After all, that's the most important element in any program--you have to have a good product. So I'm presuming you have a good product which you have established on the basis of some needs analysis, and that you have competent people to offer it. How are you going to get participants? You will get a certain percentage of people who are hungry for learning, and will come knocking on your door. And if you have been in business for any period of time, with any degree of success, chances are that 40 to 50 percent of the people who come are repeaters as has been the experience of most adult continuing education programs. But you still haven't

attracted those from the lower socioeconomic status. It may be because you have not appealed to the right motives. Many years ago I came across a list used by Madison Avenue advertising agencies to motivate buyers. The list was called "The Nine Subconscious Desires." The first subconscious desire on the list is emotional security. In our society we almost reverence this idea of emotional security. One of the worst things that we tell someone is that they're insecure, especially emotionally. It is almost a crime in the minds of many people. We will do anything for emotional security but we won't admit it--that's why it is called a "subconscious" desire. If we could admit it to ourselves, we'd be home free or most of the way there. All you have to do is to appeal to people who have this need for emotional security more than anything else, and chances are good that you will attract them.

The second subconscious desire is called "the recognition of efforts/the reassurance of worth." A pat on the back, a job well done, awards, rewards--that's what it means. People who work with juvenile delinquents tell me that most of the youths who get involved in crime do so because they hunger for some type of notice. They are the products of a society that has put them down--both parents and teachers wittingly or unwittingly have crushed whatever dignity they feel or whatever worth they have. Phrases like "You're no good," "You're stupid," "You never do anything right"--have created in these youngsters a conviction that they are indeed worthless. To get their face on television or their picture on the front page of the newspaper in whatever way is worth it because finally they are recognized. It is a pity that youngsters must go to that extreme to get recognition.

The third subconscious desire is "creative outlets." That means to be gods, to create, to make things, to be artists. So many people live in a humdrum routine kind of a world that they really haven't any opportunity to express themselves. Many adult education programs have a large number of offerings called arts and crafts precisely because adults hunger for them. A lot of people in universities--the intellectual snobs--look down on what they call artsy craftsy things. One of the most noble things a human being can do is to create something, but we don't have too much opportunity for that. I remember reading a book called The Making of a Moron. It was a serious sociological piece of research by a young man in New Zealand who studied people working on the assembly line. Please notice I'm talking about 30 years ago before unions took over in New Zealand when the work day consisted of a 10-hour day, six days a week. The researcher studied men who stood on the assembly line doing the same thing, such as tightening one bolt 10 hours a day, 6 days a week. He wondered what makes that kind of person tick? What makes him keep his sanity? As he went from factory to factory observing these men, he noticed that when the whistle blew at the end of the day (when it was their time and not company time) the men would fight for the brooms and brushes to sweep up the floor. He couldn't understand this at first. Slowly, he came to the conclusion that was the only creative outlet they had all day long. That in sweeping the floor, they were artists! An artist, by his definition, is one who brings order out of chaos. Those of you who have had the privilege of working with older adults (I use that word to mean people who are in the upper stages of life development) may have observed how they flock to creative outlet programs. It may be because they worked so hard to take care of their children--us--to give us the opportunities that they were denied, that they had very little opportunity for creative outlets. Now in their declining years, finally they have an opportunity to take care of their own needs which they do through arts and crafts programs.

The fourth subconscious desire is a "sense of personal power." We hate to admit that. There are many people who are driven by power, don't recognize it, surely will never admit it, but it's there. We express it as dominance over children, spouse, students, faculty, whatever.

The fifth subconscious desire is a "sense of roots, belonging somewhere." We want to belong somewhere and that's why all the television programs and films of the 50's and 60's are in vogue. This country does not have such a long tradition; therefore, we're hungering for roots. There's a big business capitalizing on that hunger for roots; selling your family crest and coat of arms.

The sixth subconscious desire is "immortality." University presidents know this one well. It goes like this: When a university needs an extension to the library the president looks for someone with lots of money and puts out an invitation: "How would you like to become immortal? For $3-1/2 million your name will be emblazoned forever on the library." So the individual donates $3-1/2 million. In due course the donor dies, also in due course the library is too small and needs another addition. Suddenly the immortality of the previous donor is short lived. The current craze for getting one's name into the Guinness "Book of Records" is another example of individuals seeking immortality. We all hunger for immortality in different ways. We want to live on forever. Some of us will be infamous rather than famous but we want to live on.

The seventh is "ego gratification." You can spell that out any way you want--it all comes to the same thing--satisfying myself. Some of us may suffer from an overinflated ego; we believe in ourselves, maybe more than we have a right, but what a nice, comfortable feeling it is to take care of yourself.

The eighth subconscious desire is "love in all its forms." The word love appears in more song titles than any other word in the language. That's not by accident because love is what literally makes the world go round. And I'm saying love in all its forms, however you define love. We were made to love and be loved and that's a fulfillment of life. There are so many people who feel loveless that we have an opportunity to provide for that desire through our programs, and we are not doing it. I'm afraid that too many of our institutions provide people with information from the eyebrows up and neglect people from the eyebrows down. They're intellectual, cerebral, cognitive, but they forget that it is the heart that makes most of us do what we do.

The last subconscious desire is "new experiences." We get tired of doing the same thing over and over again, no matter how good it may be. I am constantly amazed at people who tell me, "I found a new restaurant--boy, is it terrific! The food is good and the service is excellent." And the next time they go out to dine they look for a <u>new</u> restaurant!

These are the nine subconscious desires. These are the elements that make every one of us do what we do. Some of these desires are more prominent in one individual than in another, but when we take people collectively, these nine desires account for all their actions. If you want to own a human being, if you want to manipulate somebody, all you have to do is find out which ones of these desires are their principal subconscious desires and you'll have them eating out of the palm of your hand. I'm not suggesting that we "manipulate" people or "use" them for our own purposes, but surely we can use these nine subconscious desires in our marketing of programs.

Now that we have viewed "what could be done in marketing continuing education," we should turn our attention to "how" this marketing can be done. When establishing a marketing program, certain questions must be addressed: Do you have a well-formulated marketing objective? Do you have an organized plan for marketing? Do you have and do you follow some kind of control evaluation procedure for your marketing? Do you know who are your markets? Do you know the separate segments of those markets? Do

you know what those segment sizes are now and what they will be in the future? Do you know who your competition is? Do you know what future trends they're taking? Do you add new courses and drop old ones based on a needs assessment and evaluation? Do you know what effect your current tuition charges have on registrations and what effect a change in price might have? Do you have any idea what a change in location for some of your programs would have on registration? Do you know whether your services are adequate? Do you know whether you're spending the right amount, too much, or too little on advertising your program? Do you know how effective the media you use for advertising are? Do you know whether your fees and the copy that you use for your advertising are effective? Do you have an effective publicity program? Those are some of the questions you would ask yourself on a marketing audit. There was a study done at Stanford University six years ago, which looked at the marketing procedures of a sample of institutions around the United States. The suggestions they made at the conclusion of that study are these: that the promotional staffs of continuing education are not active enough in developing programs, and they let other people develop the programs for them. Also the suggestion was made that continuing educators depart from the conventional formats that are often used.

Many people are afraid to do that but once they try it, the success that results is stupendous. Many have tried new and imaginative approaches with good results and the following are some examples:

1. Imaginative buttons--this provides free publicity wherever the button is worn.

2. Matchbook covers--often reaches the correspondent students.

3. Phonograph discs--are sent to television-radio stations to play as a public service.

4. Brief 8mm film strips mailed with a pocket viewer--works as a promotional device.

5. Postal cards with a picture of the institution--again, may reach the correspondent student.

6. Registration in a busy shopping mall--often increases enrollment 50 percent.

The Stanford study also said that the promotional staffs should be less intuitive and more empirical. They said that the staffs shouldn't just go on hunches, but should do their homework. They should look at the data from their evaluation. The study also suggested that person-oriented campaigns can reach people who are otherwise unreachable. One method is to send people out into the community to talk to those who ordinarily wouldn't come--such as migrant workers and minorities. Often they're the ones who would be attracted by the personal approach and outreach program.

In summary, the first point is that adult and continuing educators are not doing nearly enough to promote their programs. I have pointed out that there is a vast population of adults who have not participated in any kind of adult and continuing education but who are ready if an attempt is made to reach them using the available tools of marketing that are at our disposal. I have shown that there are ways of attracting them: first, by removing the barriers that prevent them from coming and, second, by appealing to their needs and desires.

Perhaps the most important ingredient in marketing continuing education is the belief that continuing education is making important contributions to our society; that continuing education, to a large extent, will alleviate many of the injustices that have been perpetrated by our society; that the millions of adults who have been deprived of our educational system for whatever reason will be given that opportunity. For some, continuing education will be the last chance of getting back into the mainstream of society, and maybe the only way that they will be able to get back. The educator, then, must have the conviction and faith in what he/she is doing, and expend the kind of energy that is required in marketing continuing education programs.

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by

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"Professional Burnout"

by

Dr. Mary Doris Woltkamp Rounds

Burnout is a topic that is widely prevalent, and workers in any occupation can become burnout victims. This syndrome appears to be widely prevalent in the helping professions such as counseling, teaching, health, and social service. "Approximately 85 percent of the professional work force is at some stage of burnout at all times," according to Randy Kunkel, Colorado psychologist (Krucoff, 1980). The purpose of this paper is to give information relevant to these specific groups and to incorporate the concept of stress as it relates to burnout.

What is burnout? The dictionary defines the verb "burnout" as "to fail, wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength or resources." Pines and Aronson (1980) state that burnout is a cluster of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion. Reactions are the result of constant or repeated emotional arousal associated with an intense involvement with people over long periods of time. Due to this intense involvement that professionals experience when caring for other people, burnout is the psychological price that these professionals pay for being their brothers' keeper. The intensity, duration, frequency, and consequences of burnout may vary but three basic components seem to be present.

1. Physical exhaustion is demonstrated by low energy, chronic fatigue, weakness, and weariness. As a result, there are reports of more accidents, headaches, colds, flu, muscle tensions, and changes in eating habits and weight. The burned out person may attempt to cope with these symptoms by physical and chemical means that only aggravate the situation.

2. Emotional exhaustion involves feelings of depression, hopelessness, and helplessness. The professional feels they have nothing left to offer their client, student, etc., and many times start to blame the persons they serve for the problems they have. The usual mechanisms they have used for coping are replaced by feelings of loneliness, futility, and despair.

3. Mental exhaustion is demonstrated by negative attitudes towards work, life, and oneself with a resultant lowered self-concept. Cynical and pessimistic views of their work provide an atmosphere for either avoiding, stereotyping, or dehumanizing the clients they serve. Avoiding personal contact, not returning phone calls, clock watching, or dreading to go to work are symptoms that result. Freudenberger, a psychoanalyst who studied burnout in alternative institutions, states that the symptoms of cynicism, negative attitudes, and inflexibility lead the professional to avoid communication with others, and as a result, the professional tends to withdraw and become a loner (1975: 73-82).

This change to a negative attitude happens many times to beginning teachers as they tend to overextend themselves to be available to students, as they had vowed themselves to be as undergraduates. Many had observed long-time professors, teachers, and administrators who were in some state of burnout and did not realize that they

also could experience this so soon. These negative attitudes affect their relationships with colleagues, friends, families, and persons, who they once found to be nourishing, exciting and stimulating, are now resented and thus conflicts occur.

Also, due to trends in society, more emphasis is being placed on the care and treatment of physical and emotional problems as carried out in health care facilities rather than in the home. Recipients of this care are becoming more critical and are complaining they feel powerless due to what they term "cruel and uncaring" staff people treating them in an impersonal way--as "objects." According to Maslach, such an analysis, while correct in raising concern about the quality of service, fails to take into account the heavy psychological burden placed on the health professionals who provide this care. In order to deal with the strong feelings of emotional and personal stress due to interacting with clients who have psychological, social and/or physical problems, many professionals develop techniques of detachment called "detached concern" (1977: 1-30).

The various verbal and nonverbal techniques used by professionals help them to see their clients in a more objective, analytical way, as less human, and therefore this detached view reduces the intensity and scope of the emotional involvement. Most of these techniques allow the professional to distance himself or herself from recipients while still maintaining a genuine concern for their well-being. Some of the forms of detachment are:

1. Semantics - e.g., labels placed on clients like "The coronary in Room 302," "The gunshot case." Going strictly by the book, clients are put in A, B, or C categories and then the formula for treatment is applied.

2. Intellectualization - Dealing with the abstract qualities of the client rather than the personal; e.g., instead of confronting that a client is being verbally abusive to them, saying "he is displaying a delusional syndrome."

3. Situational compactmentalization - Not sharing any problems with family or co-workers and thus the emotional stress is confined to separate parts of the professional's life. This is due to making a sharp distinction between their professional and personal lives.

4. Psychological withdrawal - Minimizing one's psychological involvement in the stressful interaction at the expense of the client. One approach to psychological self-protection is to physically distance oneself by avoiding eye contact or standing across the room. Other approaches are to spend less time with clients, demonstrate poor performance (will have fewer clients with problems referred to them), avoid tasks, and rigidly adhere to or hide behind rules to avoid making decisions about individual cases.

5. Social techniques - In attempting to deal with intense, emotional feelings, turning to co-workers for support can help reduce psychological stress. This social support can also be used as a detachment technique to promote a perceived diffusion of responsibility. Another social technique is the use of humor, which can help make a situation less serious, less frightening, and less overwhelming. Clients do not always understand this mechanism for reducing stress and may see the professionals as cold, uncaring people.

Although these "detached concern" techniques are more clearly recognized in medical as opposed to social service professions, it is evident that the majority of these providers of care have not had adequate preparation to deal with the intense involvement that commitment to clients requires. As a result, the process of burnout begins and this involves the loss of concern with whom one is working. This may include loss of positive feelings, sympathy, or respect for clients.

Other signs and symptoms can be divided into two categories: physical and behavioral (McMinn, 1979:8-10).

> The physical symptoms of burnout include:
>
> 1) A feeling of exhaustion or fatigue
> 2) Frequent headaches
> 3) Gastrointestinal disturbances often resulting in weight loss
> 4) A feeling of depression
> 5) Sleeplessness
> 6) Shortness of breath
>
> The behavioral symptoms may be described as:
>
> 1) Feelings of hopelessness
> 2) Quickness to anger with sudden irritation and frustration
> 3) A suspicious attitude with possible paranoia
> 4) A feeling of complete knowledge and authority, resulting in increased risk-taking
> 5) Blunting of affect
> 6) Mood changes
> 7) Increased rigidity

Other signs and symptoms can include inertia, or feeling of "Spinning of wheels," loss of personal effectiveness, apathy, or substance abuse. Early signs can be so subtle that they can go unnoticed.

How can professionals identify if they are experiencing burnout? Pines and Aronson (1980) maintain that being aware that one is experiencing burnout and identifying major causes are the first steps toward effective coping. They have utilized the following self-diagnosis instrument:

> People can compute their burnout score by completing the following questionnaire. How often do you have any of the following experiences?
>
> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
> |---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
> | Never | Once in a great while | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Usually | Always |
>
> ____1. Being tired
> ____2. Feeling depressed
> ____3. Having a good day
> ____4. Being physically exhausted
> ____5. Being emotionally exhausted
> ____6. Being happy
> ____7. Being "wiped out"
> ____8. Feeling "burned out"
> ____9. Being unhappy
> ____10. Feeling rundown
> ____11. Feeling trapped

In their research using this instrument in burnout workshops, they found that ratings of 1 or 7 are very seldom found. A score of 1 implies a state of eternal euphoria, and it is doubtful that someone scoring 7 would be coping in the world well enough to participate in a burnout workshop. The authors believe that if one has been really honest in their responses, a score between 2 and 3 indicates the person is doing well.

If a score is between 3 and 4, examination of one's life, evaluating priorities, and making possible changes should be considered. If a score is above 4, the person is experiencing burnout to the extent that something should be done about it. A score higher than 5 indicates an acute state and a need for immediate help.

Another self-assessment instrument published in The Washington Post (Krucoff, 1980) asks, "Do You Dread Going to Work?". The scale and method for scoring are listed below; however, only 12 of the possible 25 questions are listed.

> How burned out are you? Rate each question on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 meaning never, 2 rarely, 3 sometimes, 4 often, and 5 always:
>
> Do you:
>
> _____1. Worry at night and have trouble sleeping?
> _____2. Feel less competent or effective than you used to feel?
> _____3. Consider yourself unappreciated or "used" on the job?
> _____4. Always feel tired even when you get enough sleep?
> _____5. Dread going to work?
> _____6. Get angry and irritated easily?
> _____7. Have recurring headaches, stomachaches, and lower back pain?
> _____8. Feel overwhelmed?
>
> Are you:
>
> _____9. Always watching the clock?
> _____10. Avoiding conversation with co-workers?
> _____11. Rigidly applying the rules without considering more creative solutions?
> _____12. Increasing your use of alcohol or drugs?

Who Experiences Burnout? According to Freudenberger (1975: 73-82), burnout is not an exclusive phenomenon seen only in self-help and other professional groups. Compulsive gamblers, drug addicts, obese persons, policemen, and homemakers are some other examples. It is definitely present in business and industry; many times burnout occurs about one year after someone has joined an organization. The following are some of the individuals that Freudenberger refers to:

> 1. The highly charismatic leader who finds that a "miracle" has not happened, and he has been unable to meet staff expectations as well as his own.
>
> 2. The dedicated and committed worker who takes on too much, for too long, and too intensely.
>
> 3. The overcommitted person whose outside life is unsatisfactory and uses his work as a substitute for a meaningful social life.
>
> 4. The authoritarian personality type who has so much need for control that no one can do the job as well as he can.
>
> 5. The administrator who doesn't share feelings with staff, attends too many meetings, and wears a number of hats. Veninga (1979:45-52) states some of the reasons are: a.) failure to fulfill one's expectations; b.) lack of trust in others; c.) believing his perceptions of the world and situations are the correct ones; d.) pressure to succeed; and e.) pressures of the organization.

6. The professional - whether the professional is an educator, physician, nurse, social worker, accountant, lawyer, etc., he tends to overidentify with those he is working, works long hours, and may try to maintain an imposed self-image.

According to Maslach, burnout is inevitable when a professional cares for too many people. There is a higher and higher emotional overload. Like a wire that has too much electricity, the worker emotionally disconnects. In reality, professionals who deal constantly with client problems are subject to the same emotions and fears clients experience. They become angry, deny the truth, and may avoid the problems.

Because burnout is correlated with various indices of stress, it is important to consider, "What is stress?" Stress as defined by Hans Selye, M.D. (1976), a famous pioneering researcher in psychosomatic medicine, is "the non-specific response of the body to any demand whether it is caused by, or results in, pleasant or unpleasant conditions." When stress is damaging or unpleasant, it is called distress; and prolonged distress may subject a person to one of the stress-induced illnesses. When stress levels become too high in our bodies, distress occurs. Selye has identified 31 self-observable danger signs of distress:

- general irritability, hyperexcitation, or depression
- pounding of the heart
- dryness of the throat and mouth
- impulsive behavior, emotional instability
- the overpowering urge to cry or run and hide
- inability to concentrate
- feelings of unreality, weakness, and dizziness
- predilection to become fatigued
- floating anxiety
- emotional tension and alertness
- trembling and nervous ticks
- tendency to be easily startled by small sounds
- high-pitched nervous laughter
- stuttering and other speech difficulties
- grinding of the teeth
- insomnia
- increased tendency to move without reason
- sweating
- frequent urination
- diarrhea and cramping
- migraine headaches
- premenstrual tension or missed periods
- pain in the neck or lower back
- decreased or increased appetite
- increased smoking
- increasing use of legal drugs
- alcohol and drug addiction
- nightmares
- neurotic behavior
- psychoses
- accident proneness

The demands called "stressors" are external events or changes in one's life stemming from people and/or circumstances. The responses or changes (stress) resulting from stressors may be signs of wear and tear or adaptive reactions. The cumulative effect

of this stress is called the stress syndrome or the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). GAS develops in three stages:

1. The alarm reaction: the initial response of the body to stressors. The response is not specific to any body part but is rather generalized throughout the body. Some common, observable, responses are: a) increased activity, efficiency, or alertness; b) decreased activity, crying, loss of appetite; and c) the well-known "fight or flight" response; i.e., anger or withdrawal. Everyone experiences this alarm reaction stage many times; its manifestations in any individual may change over time.

2. The resistance stage: the body's defenses, both physiological and psychological, are mobilized to resist the stress; the person adapts to the stressor and subsequent stress.

3. The exhaustion stage: the body has a finite store of adaptive energy; eventually it is exhausted, used up, and the person succumbs to illness.

Everyone experiences some degree of stress all the time as they constantly interact with our environment--that is, engage in the "give and take." When the number and/or frequency of stressors increase significantly, coping with the resultant stress may become more difficult, even unsuccessful. When this occurs, one's stress will increase, as does the amount of stress-induced behavior. New coping mechanisms must be found or signs and symptoms of maladaptation may begin to appear.

Selye (1974) found that some illnesses are not caused by germs or bacteria, but by stress; chronic stress can cause chronic illness. Examples of such maladaptation to stress are: ulcers, hypertension, certain allergies, and cardiovascular alterations, neuroses, psychoses.

Stress is neither negative nor positive as far as the body is concerned; it just is. Many people think that stress results only when a negative event occurs. Stress results from any event; it does not matter if you view it positively or negatively. And stress is not necessarily bad, in fact, a certain amount is essential for survival and a certain amount is "good" in the sense that it allows a person to function at an alert, effective level. Subsequent to Selye's work, research has shown that stress is caused by internal as well as external changes. In review, then, stress is a generalized, non-specific response of the body to any demand or activity made upon it. The demands or changes may be real, or anticipated, and are collectively called stressors.

The stress (response) is known as the General Adaptation Syndrome, or GAS, it consists of three stages: 1) the alarm stage, 2) the resistance stage, and 3) the exhaustion stage. Everyone constantly experiences the first two stages as they interact with their environment. Stage 2 helps to balance out Stage 1 and return the body back into a balance of homeostasis (Neal & Cooper, 1980: 5-16).

Individual make-up and personality causes a person to react differently to stress. As Forbes points out, certain personality characteristics simply predispose an individual to experience more or less stress than his or her peers (1979: 64-67). In looking at corporations, she points out that some personality characteristics which are highly valued in organizations may not contribute to good mental health. However, these traits may be responsible for an individual's successful attainment of organization goals so their detrimental aspects tend to be ignored.

A series of questions developed at Stanford University can help an individual measure his/her own stress level (Schloat & Ward, 1980).

. . I feel tense, anxious, and have nervous indigestion. Often, sometimes, never.
. People at home, work, or school make me feel tense. Often, sometimes, never.
. I have tension, pain in the neck or shoulders, migraine headaches, or insomnia. Often, sometimes, never.
. I can't turn off my thoughts at night or on weekends long enough to feel relaxed and refreshed the next day. Often, sometimes, never.
. I find it difficult to concentrate on what I'm doing because I'm worrying about other things. Often, sometimes, never.
. I take tranquilizers and other types of medication to relax. Often, sometimes, never.

For the last two questions, answer yes (for one point) or no (for zero).

. Once I find the time it's still hard to relax. Yes or no.
. My work or school day is made up of many deadlines. Yes or no.

The Stanford Group computed the following results in their survey: 14-18 very stressful; 10-13 stressful; 6-9 average; 3-5 relaxed; 0-2 very relaxed, you're cruising along and enjoying it all.

How can or does the professional cope with burnout and stress? Coping refers to efforts to master conditions of harm, threat, or challenge when an automatic response is not available, according to Lazarus who is a leader in the field of stress research (Monat & Lazarus, 1977). He suggests two general types of coping: 1) Direct action in which the person tries to master the stressful transaction with the environment, and 2) Palliation, or indirect action, in which the person attempts to reduce the disturbance although is unable to manage the environment or when the action is too costly for the individual. Direct coping, or direct action, is a strategy applied externally to the environmental source of stress. Indirect coping, or palliation, is a strategy applied internally to one's behaviors and emotions.

Katry and Pines (1978) found there are also passive/active dimensions in addition to the direct/indirect dimensions of coping. An active (approaching) coping strategy involves confronting or attempting to change the source of stress or change oneself, while passive (withdrawing) coping strategy involves avoidance or denial of the stress by cognitive, physical, or chemical means. These two strategies, direct/indirect, along with active/passive approaches, generate four types of coping strategies as demonstrated on this grid:

STRESS COPING GRID

Active	Passive
. Changing the source of the stress . Confronting source . Adopting a positive attitude	. Ignoring the source of the stress . Avoiding source . Leaving
. Talking about the source of stress . Changing self . Getting involved in other activities	. Alcohol or drugs . Getting ill . Collapsing

In a study involving 563 subjects (Katry & Pines, 1978), the subjects were asked how they cope with their life and work stresses (did not give a list of coping techniques and asked how often they used each one). Twenty percent of the respondents were found to confront the source of their stress as a coping technique. Twenty percent indicated that they avoid the sources of stress (18%) or do nothing about it (2%). Forty-nine percent used a variety of indirect-active techniques: talking about the stress (20%); thinking about it (12%); studying (9%); getting involved in other activities (7%); physical activities, religious activities, and relaxation (1%). Eleven percent reported a variety of indirect-passive coping styles: worrying and coping (4%); drinking, eating, and smoking (1%); accepting the situation (4%); nothing (2%).

The results of this study indicated that active strategies were used more often to cope with burnout and were the most successful. The frequency of active strategies were negatively correlated with burnout, and the frequency of passive were positively correlated. An exception was the direct-passive action of ignoring the source; it was more similar to the active than passive strategies. Individuals who used passive strategies also report high levels of burnout; and it is not clear whether burnout causes an individual to have a problem with substance abuse, or whether the excess drinking, smoking, medications, etc., helps to cause one to burnout.

Although people who use active strategies successfully seem to be able to alleviate burnout, other coping strategies should also be used according to the situation.

Another successful mechanism for coping with burnout is by developing social support systems. These have been defined by Gerald Caplan (1974) as enduring interpersonal ties to groups of people who can be relied upon to provide emotional sustenance, assistance, and resources in time of need, who provide feedback, and who share standards and values. A practical definition of a social support system is the people who support an individual through crises and calm and with whom feelings can be shared without fear or condemnation. Pines and Aronson (1980) list six basic functions of a social support system:

1) Listening - Active listening without making judgments or giving advice, share joys of success, also frustrations and failures. Share conflicts and everyday incidents.
2) Technical Support - Two criteria are present:
   a) Must understand the professional's field of work with its complexities and be willing to give honest feedback.
   b) Must be someone whose honesty and integrity is trusted.
3) Technical Challenge - Contact with colleagues who are exciting and creative and who challenge one's way of thinking. If not, there is a high risk of stagnation and boredom. The colleague must know the job and be trustworthy.
4) Emotional Support - A person is on the professional's side even if he/she does not completely agree. This can be a family member who is not usually the technical expert. This person gives unconditional support at least occasionally.
5) Emotional Challenge - The professional may have assumed he/she is doing the best job and blames others, rather than take the responsibility for problems or crises. Defense mechanisms are sometimes useful, but overuse can thwart emotional growth and impede efficient use of energy. A support person can challenge the professional to evaluate if he is really doing the best to fulfill goals and to overcome obstacles.

6) Sharing Social Reality - This is one of the most important functions of support systems in which a significant person can help interpret a situation realistically. The professional may be so emotionally involved, fatigued, burned out, etc., that he does not have the ability to objectively evaluate what is actually happening. If the situation is stressful, a person with similar priorities, values and views can be helpful.

Many professionals need several support systems as one individual may not be able to provide all the support needed. An example is when one expects a family member without the same technical expertise to understand the problems, and as a result, conflicts can arise.

There are many other safeguards for either preventing or dealing with burnout such as having a period of decompression after work which includes time to be quiet, meditate, exercise, or relax. Hobbies, physical fitness programs, and relaxation techniques are useful. A re-ordering of priorities, taking "time-outs," and taking vacations that include spacing the time off every 3-4 months. Allowing oneself to have fun doing things that have been excluded from life due to personal and professional pressures will provide for a different outlook on a situation. Finding time for oneself, reinforcing self, building self-esteem, acknowledging skills, and positive events are other mechanisms for coping. Avoiding colleagues or friends with negative attitudes toward job, life, and self can help prevent burnout.

Some professionals deal with burnout by leaving the job or even the profession entirely. Before doing this, it is wise to consider other possibilities such as a different position within the system or changing the routine of tasks performed. Also, becoming involved with other aspects of an organization helps. However, steps should be taken to avoid becoming a "psychological dropout" who does only assigned work, adheres rigidly to rules, and avoids contacts that might result in conflict.

The pain and feelings of failure that often accompany resigning can be detrimental to the professional. Bardo describes this pain of burnout which was present in her when she left the teaching profession as students' "devaluation of education" (1979: 252-254). The loss of salary, fringe benefits, and security are also to be considered before leaving. As a result, some organizations have "burned out" staff who are not performing at their potential level but stay on the job for security reasons.

In summary, burnout can be detrimental to both the professional and the organization in which they are involved. Organizations and their clients can pay the price by losing the talents of the professionals by having poor morale and high rates of absenteeism and turnover, which ultimately increase the costs for the organization. Freudenberger states that burnout in an organization can be as devastating as any burning thing if allowed to continue, and steps should be taken to deal with the problems. He has found that a high frequency of staff and committee meetings correlate with avoidance of contact with clients, patients, or students. As more emphasis is placed on job-oriented goals, professionals begin to develop negative and dehumanizing attitudes towards the very people they had hoped to serve when they entered a helping profession (1977: 26-27).

Burnout does not have to be final--it can provide an opportunity for future personal and professional growth. A professional should carefully evaluate if the burnout that is experienced is possibly only a temporary situation and utilize various coping strategies before making decisions about the future.

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